

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE
PUSA

PHILOSOPHICAL

TRANSACTIONS

OF THE

ROYAL SOCIETY

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LONDON.

FOR THE YEAR MDCCCLXX.

VOL. 160

LONDON:

PRINTED BY TAYLOR AND FRANCIS, RED LION COURT, FLEET STREET

MDCCCLXX.

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PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS.

I. Note on Professor Sylvester's representation of the Motion of a free rigid Body by that of a material Ellipsoid whose centre is fixed, and which rolls on a rough Plane. By the Rev. N. M. Ferrers, Fellow and Tutor of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Communicated by Professor J. J. Sylvester, F.R.S.

Received May 29,-Read June 17, 1869.

In a paper published in the Transactions of the Royal Society for 1866, Professor Sylvester has given an important extension of Poinsor's representation of the motion of a freely rotating rigid body, by means of the momental ellipsoid. He has proved that if a material ellipsoid, similar in form to the momental ellipsoid, and so constituted that its principal moments of inertia, A, B, C, are connected with its semiaxes a, b, c by the relation Aa^4 $(b^2-c^2)+Bb^4(c^2-a^2)+Cc^4(a^2-b^2)=0$, be made to roll in contact with a perfectly rough plane, the motion of this material ellipsoid will be precisely the same as that of the momental ellipsoid of the rigid body; the rough plane taking the place of the geometrical fixed plane, in contact with which the momental ellipsoid is supposed to roll. He has also investigated expressions for the pressure and friction between the ellipsoid and the rough plane, in terms of the angular velocity of the ellipsoid, and of the length of its axes, and the distance of the centre from the rough plane. In investigating independently the values of these forces, I have been led to a somewhat different treatment of the same problem, in the course of which some theorems have presented themselves which may be not without interest.

The notation which I adopt is as follows: ω_1 , ω_2 , ω_3 represent the component angular velocities of the ellipsoid about its principal axes, which, as proved by Professor Sylvester, are connected by the following equations:—

$$\frac{d\omega_1}{dt} = a^2 \left(\frac{1}{b^2} - \frac{1}{c^2}\right) \omega_1 \omega_2, \quad \frac{d\omega_2}{dt} = b^2 \left(\frac{1}{c^2} - \frac{1}{c^2}\right) \omega_1 \omega_1, \quad \frac{d\omega_3}{ttl} = c^2 \left(\frac{1}{a^2} - \frac{1}{b^2}\right) \omega_1 \omega_2. \quad . \quad . \quad (1)$$

The distance from the centre of the ellipsoid to the rough plane is denoted by p, and the component angular velocity of the ellipsoid about the normal to the rough plane, which is known to be constant, by λ . The component angular velocity about the proMDCCCLXX.

jection of the instantaneous axis on the rough plane is denoted by μ , and the whole angular velocity by ω , so that we have

We have also the following relations:-

$$\frac{\omega_1^8}{\pi^2} + \frac{\omega_2^8}{\beta^2} + \frac{\omega_3^8}{\alpha^2} = \frac{\lambda^8}{\pi^2}, \quad \dots \qquad (3)$$

$$\frac{\omega_1^2}{a^4} + \frac{\omega_2^2}{b^4} + \frac{\omega_3^2}{c^4} = \frac{\lambda^2}{p^4}. \qquad (4*)$$

And the principal moments of inertia are represented by

$$\Big(\frac{\rm G}{a^2} - \frac{\rm H}{p^2}\Big)b^2c^2, \ \Big(\frac{\rm G}{b^2} - \frac{\rm H}{p^2}\Big)c^2a^2, \ \Big(\frac{\rm G}{c^2} - \frac{\rm H}{p^2}\Big)a^3b^2,$$

which will be found, when substituted for A, B, C, to satisfy the relation already stated. In the case of a uniform ellipsoid, we have

$$G\left(\frac{1}{a^2} + \frac{1}{b^2} + \frac{1}{c^2}\right) = \frac{H}{p^2}$$

* [The equations (1), (2), (3), (4), and the invariability of λ , may also be proved as follows. If x, y, z be the coordinates of the point of contact, referred to the principal axes, we have

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1, \quad \frac{x^2}{a^4} + \frac{y^2}{b^4} + \frac{z^2}{c^4} = \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Also

$$\frac{x}{\omega} = \frac{y}{\omega} = \frac{z}{\omega} = \frac{p}{\lambda}$$

whence

$$\frac{\omega_1^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{\omega_2^2}{h^2} + \frac{\omega_3^2}{\sigma_1^2} = \frac{\lambda^2}{\eta^2}, \quad \frac{\omega_1^2}{\sigma_1^4} + \frac{\omega_2^2}{h^4} + \frac{\omega_3^2}{\sigma_1^4} = \frac{\lambda^2}{\eta^4}.$$

Multiply these equations by $-\frac{H}{\sigma^2}$, G, and add, then

$$a^2b^2c^3\left\{\left(\frac{\mathbf{G}}{a^2}-\frac{\mathbf{H}}{p^2}\right)b^2c^2\boldsymbol{\omega}_1^2+\left(\frac{\mathbf{G}}{b^2}-\frac{\mathbf{H}}{p^2}\right)c^2a^2\boldsymbol{\omega}_2^2+\left(\frac{\mathbf{G}}{c^2}-\frac{\mathbf{H}}{p^2}\right)a^2b^2\boldsymbol{\omega}_2^2\right\}=(\mathbf{G}-\mathbf{H})\frac{\boldsymbol{\lambda}^2}{p^4},$$

or

$$\lambda^2 = \frac{p^4}{a^2 b^2 c^2} \cdot \frac{vis \ viva \ of \ the \ ellipsoid}{G - H},$$

and is therefore constant.

Hence the direction-cosines of the perpendicular to the fixed plane are

$$\frac{\omega_1}{a^2} \frac{p^2}{\lambda}, \frac{\omega_2}{b^2} \frac{p^2}{\lambda}, \frac{\omega_3}{c^2} \frac{p^2}{\lambda};$$

and since this line is fixed,

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \frac{p^2}{\lambda} \frac{d\omega_1}{dt} - \frac{\omega_2}{h^2} \frac{p^2}{\lambda} \omega_3 + \frac{\omega_3}{\sigma^2} \frac{p^2}{\lambda} \omega_2 = 0,$$

or

$$\frac{1}{a^2}\frac{d\omega_1}{dt} = \left(\frac{1}{b^2} - \frac{1}{a^2}\right)\omega_2\omega_3 = 0.$$

Similarly

$$\frac{1}{b^2} \frac{d\omega_2}{dt} - \left(\frac{1}{c^2} - \frac{1}{a^2}\right) \omega_2 \omega_1 = 0,$$

$$\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{d\omega_3}{dt} - \left(\frac{1}{c^2} - \frac{1}{b^2}\right) \omega_1 \omega_2 = 0.$$
 February 1870.]

[We shall first investigate the value of h_{λ} , the component angular momentum of the ellipsoid about the normal to the rough plane. The cosines of the inclinations of this line to the principal axes of the ellipsoid are $\frac{p^2}{\lambda} \frac{\omega_1}{a^2}$, $\frac{p^2}{\lambda} \frac{\omega_2}{b^2}$, $\frac{p^2}{\lambda} \frac{\omega_3}{c^2}$ respectively; and the component angular momenta about the principal axes are

$$\left(\frac{\mathbf{G}}{a^2} - \frac{\mathbf{H}}{p^2}\right)b^2c^2\boldsymbol{\omega}_1, \; \left(\frac{\mathbf{G}}{b^2} - \frac{\mathbf{H}}{p^2}\right)c^2a^2\boldsymbol{\omega}_2, \; \left(\frac{\mathbf{G}}{c^2} - \frac{\mathbf{H}}{p^2}\right)a^2b^2\boldsymbol{\omega}_3$$

respectively. Hence

Now, by multiplying (2), (3), (4) by $\frac{1}{a^2b^3c^2} - \left(\frac{1}{b^3c^2} + \frac{1}{c^2a^2} + \frac{1}{a^2b^2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{a^2} + \frac{1}{b^2} + \frac{1}{c^2}\right)$ respectively, and adding, we see that

 $\frac{\omega_1^3}{a^6} + \frac{\omega_2^3}{b^6} + \frac{\omega_3^3}{c^6} = \frac{\lambda^4}{p^6} - \lambda^2 \left(\frac{1}{p^2} - \frac{1}{a^2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{p^2} - \frac{1}{b^2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{p^2} - \frac{1}{c^2} \right) + \frac{\mu^2}{a^2 b^2 c^2}.$

Hence

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$$h_{\lambda} = \frac{p^{2}}{\lambda} \left[G \lambda^{2} \left\{ \frac{a^{2}b^{2}c^{2}}{p^{6}} - \left(\frac{a^{2}}{p^{6}} - 1 \right) \left(\frac{b^{2}}{p^{2}} - 1 \right) \left(\frac{c^{2}}{p^{2}} - 1 \right) \right\} + G \mu^{2} - H \frac{\lambda^{2}}{p^{6}} a^{2}b^{2}c^{2} \right]$$

$$= (G - H)\lambda \frac{a^{2}b^{2}c^{2}}{p^{4}} + G \lambda p^{2} \left(1 - \frac{a^{2}}{p^{2}} \right) \left(1 - \frac{b^{2}}{p^{2}} \right) \left(1 - \frac{c^{2}}{p^{2}} \right) + G \frac{p^{2}}{\lambda} \mu^{2}. \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (5)$$

We shall next investigate a relation between the component angular momentum of the ellipsoid about any axis through its centre, and that, about the same axis, of a particle of mass G, situated at the point of contact of the ellipsoid and rough plane, and moving as that point moves. If l, m, n be the direction-cosines of the axis referred to the principal axes, the component angular momentum of the body about it is

$$\frac{\binom{G}{a^{2}} - \frac{H}{p^{2}}}{b^{2}c^{2}l\omega_{1} + \binom{G}{b^{2}} - \frac{H}{p^{2}}}c^{2}a^{2}m\omega_{2} + \binom{G}{c^{2}} - \frac{H}{p^{2}}a^{2}b^{2}n\omega_{3},$$

$$a^{2}b^{2}c^{2}\left\{G\left(\frac{l\omega_{1}}{c^{4}} + \frac{m\omega_{2}}{b^{4}} + \frac{n\omega_{3}}{b^{4}} + \frac{n\omega_{3}}{c^{4}}\right) - \frac{H}{p^{2}}\left(\frac{l\omega_{1}}{a^{2}} + \frac{m\omega_{2}}{b^{2}} + \frac{n\omega_{3}}{c^{2}}\right)\right\}. \qquad (6)$$

Again, the coordinates of the point of contact are $\frac{p}{\lambda} \omega_1$, $\frac{p}{\lambda} \omega_2$, $\frac{p}{\lambda} \omega_3$ respectively. Hence its component velocities, parallel to the axes, are

$$\frac{p}{\lambda} \frac{d\omega_1}{dt}, \frac{p}{\lambda} \frac{d\omega_2}{dt}, \frac{p}{\lambda} \frac{d\omega_3}{dt}$$

and its component angular momenta are therefore

$$G\frac{p^2}{\lambda^2}\left(\omega_2\frac{d\omega_3}{dt}-\omega_3\frac{d\omega_2}{dt}\right), G\frac{p^2}{\lambda^2}\left(\omega_3\frac{d\omega_1}{dt}-\omega_1\frac{d\omega_3}{dt}\right), G\frac{p^2}{\lambda^2}\left(\omega_1\frac{d\omega_2}{dt}-\omega_2\frac{d\omega_1}{dt}\right).$$

Now, by equations (1), we see that

$$\omega_2 \frac{d\omega_3}{dt} - \omega_3 \frac{d\omega_2}{dt} = c^3 \left(\frac{1}{a^3} - \frac{1}{b^3} \right) \omega_1 \omega_2^3 - b^2 \left(\frac{1}{c^3} - \frac{1}{a^3} \right) \omega_1 \omega_2^3$$

$$= b^2 c^2 \omega_1 \left\{ \frac{1}{a^2} \left(\frac{\omega_2^2}{b^2} + \frac{\omega_2^3}{c^3} \right) - \left(\frac{\omega_2^2}{b^4} + \frac{\omega_2^3}{c^4} \right) \right\}$$

$$= b^2 c^2 \omega_1 \left(\frac{1}{a^4} - \frac{1}{p^3} \right) \frac{\lambda^2}{p^3} \text{ by (3) and (4)}.$$

The other component angular momenta being similarly transformed, we obtain, for the component angular momentum about the assigned axis,

$$Ga^{2}b^{3}c^{2}\left\{\frac{l\omega_{1}}{a^{2}}\left(\frac{1}{a^{2}}-\frac{1}{p^{2}}\right)+\frac{m\omega_{2}}{b^{2}}\left(\frac{1}{b^{2}}-\frac{1}{p^{2}}\right)+\frac{n\omega_{3}}{c^{2}}\left(\frac{1}{c^{2}}-\frac{1}{p^{2}}\right)\right\},$$

or

$$Ga^{2}b^{3}c^{3}\left\{\frac{l\omega_{1}}{a^{4}}+\frac{m\omega_{2}}{b^{4}}+\frac{n\omega_{3}}{c^{4}}-\frac{1}{p^{2}}\left(\frac{l\omega_{1}}{a^{2}}+\frac{m\omega_{2}}{b^{2}}+\frac{n\omega_{3}}{c^{2}}\right)\right\}. \qquad (7)$$

Comparing this with the expression already obtained for the angular momentum of the body, we see that the two expressions are equal if

$$\frac{l\omega_1}{a^2} + \frac{m\omega_2}{b^2} + \frac{n\omega_3}{c^2} = 0$$

i. e. if the axis be parallel to the rough plane; and generally that the angular momentum of the ellipsoid, that of the particle,

$$= (G-H) \frac{a^2 b^2 c^2}{p^2} \left(\frac{l\omega_1}{a^2} + \frac{m\omega_2}{b^2} + \frac{n\omega_3}{c^2} \right),$$

which, if the axis be perpendicular to the rough plane, becomes $(G-H)\frac{a^2b^2c^2}{p^4}\lambda$, a constant.—February 1870].

Now, let h_t denote the angular momentum of the ellipsoid about an axis through its centre, parallel to the rough plane, and at right angles to the instantaneous axis, and h_{ς} about an axis through its centre parallel to the rough plane and at right angles to this last. The radius vector of the point of contact measured from the foot of the perpendicular on the rough plane is $\frac{p}{\lambda}\mu$; and hence if n denote the angular velocity of this radius vector in space, the radial and transversal component velocities of the point of contact will be $\frac{p}{\lambda}\frac{d\mu}{dt}, \frac{p}{\lambda}n\mu$ respectively. To obtain the component angular momenta of the particle we have only to multiply the expressions by G. Hence, by the theorem just proved,

$$h_t = G \frac{p^2}{\lambda} \frac{d\mu}{dt}, h_\rho = G \frac{p^2}{\lambda} n\mu. \qquad (8)$$

We can now calculate the values of P and F, the pressure and friction of the ellipsoid against the plane. Taking moments about axes through the centre of the ellipsoid, lying in the rough plane and perpendicular to the direction of P and F respectively,

each of these forces acts at an arm p . Hence

$$F_{\lambda}^{p} \mu = \frac{dh_{\lambda}}{dt}$$

$$= G^{\frac{2p^{2}}{\lambda}} \mu \frac{d\mu}{dt} \text{ by (7)};$$

$$\therefore F = 2Gp^{\frac{d\mu}{dt}} \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots (9)$$

It is worthy of notice that $F = \frac{2\lambda}{p} h_r$.

Again,

$$\mathbf{P} \frac{p}{\lambda} \mu = \frac{dh_t}{dt} - nh_\varrho$$

$$= \mathbf{G} \frac{p^8}{\lambda} \left(\frac{d^3 \mu}{dt^2} - n^2 \mu \right);$$

$$\therefore \quad \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{G} p \left(\frac{1}{\mu} \frac{d^3 \mu}{dt^2} - n^2 \right). \quad (10)$$

It may be desirable to replace these expressions by others in which μ shall be the only variable quantity, and which shall be free from differential coefficients. This may be done as follows. Writing, for shortness, α , β , γ in place of

$$1-\frac{a^2}{p^2}$$
, $1-\frac{b^2}{p^2}$, $1-\frac{c^2}{p^2}$

respectively, it may be proved, from equations (1), (2), (3), (4), that

$$\left(\mu \frac{d\mu}{dt}\right)^{2} = -(\mu^{2} + \beta \gamma \lambda^{2})(\mu^{2} + \gamma \alpha \lambda^{2})(\mu^{2} + \alpha \beta \lambda^{2}). \qquad (11)$$

Again, it is proved by Poinson, 'Sur la Rotation des Corps,' p. 130 (see also Quarterly Journal of Pure and Applied Mathematics, vol. vii. p. 74), that

$$p = \lambda + \alpha \beta \gamma \frac{\lambda^3}{\mu^2}, \qquad (12)$$

a result which also follows from (5), (6), (7), remembering that the angular momentum of the particle about the normal to the rough plane is $G_{\bar{\lambda}^2}^{p^2}\mu^2n$.

Now, differentiating (11),

$$\begin{split} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\mu \frac{d\mu}{dt} \right) &= -(\mu^2 + \gamma \alpha \lambda^2) (\mu^2 + \alpha \beta \lambda^2) - (\mu^2 + \alpha \beta \lambda^2) (\mu^2 + \beta \gamma \lambda^2) \\ &\quad - (\mu^2 + \beta \gamma \lambda^3) (\mu^2 + \gamma \alpha \lambda^2); \\ \therefore \mu \frac{d^2\mu}{dt^2} &= -(\mu^2 + \gamma \alpha \lambda^2) (\mu^2 + \alpha \beta \lambda^2) - (\mu^2 + \alpha \beta \lambda^2) (\mu^2 + \beta \gamma \lambda^2) - (\mu^2 + \beta \gamma \lambda^2) (\mu^2 + \gamma \alpha \lambda^2) \\ &\quad + \frac{(\mu^2 + \beta \gamma \lambda^2) (\mu^2 + \gamma \alpha \lambda^2) (\mu^2 + \alpha \beta \lambda^2)}{\mu^2}, \end{split}$$

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and
$$n^{2}\mu^{3} = \left(\lambda\mu + \alpha\beta\gamma\frac{\lambda^{2}}{\mu}\right)^{3};$$

$$\therefore \mu^{2}\left(\frac{1}{\mu}\frac{d^{3}\mu}{dt^{2}} - n^{2}\right) = -2\mu^{4} - (1 + \beta\gamma + \gamma\alpha + \alpha\beta)\lambda^{2}\mu^{2} - 2\alpha\beta\gamma\lambda^{4} - \alpha^{2}\beta^{2}\gamma^{2}\frac{\lambda^{6}}{\mu^{2}};$$

$$\therefore P = Gp\left\{-2\mu^{2} - (1 + \beta\gamma + \gamma\alpha + \alpha\beta)\lambda^{2} - 2\alpha\beta\gamma\frac{\lambda^{4}}{\mu^{3}} - \alpha^{2}\beta^{2}\gamma^{2}\frac{\lambda^{6}}{\mu^{4}}\right\}. \qquad (13)$$
Again,
$$F = Gp\frac{d\mu}{dt};$$

$$= \frac{Gp}{\mu}\left\{-(\mu^{2} + \beta\gamma\lambda^{2})(\mu^{2} + \gamma\alpha\lambda^{2})(\mu^{2} + \alpha\beta\lambda^{2})\right\}. \qquad (14)$$

[The theorem contained in equations (5) and (6) may perhaps receive additional illustration by a comparison of the moments, about the principal axes, of the forces acting on the ellipsoid, and of those acting on the particle coinciding with the point of contact. Since the component angular momenta of the ellipsoid about the principal axes are $\left(\frac{\mathrm{G}}{a^2} - \frac{\mathrm{H}}{p^2}\right)b^2c^2\omega_1$, $\left(\frac{\mathrm{G}}{b^2} - \frac{\mathrm{H}}{p^2}\right)c^2a^2\omega_2$, $\left(\frac{\mathrm{G}}{c^2} - \frac{\mathrm{H}}{p^2}\right)a^2b^2\omega_3$, it follows that the moment of the forces about one of the principal axes is

or
$$\left(\frac{G}{a^{2}} - \frac{H}{p^{2}}\right)b^{2}c^{2}\frac{d\omega_{1}}{dt} - \left\{\left(\frac{G}{b^{2}} - \frac{H}{p^{2}}\right)c^{2}\alpha^{2} - \left(\frac{G}{c^{2}} - \frac{H}{p^{2}}\right)\alpha^{3}b^{2}\right\}\omega_{z}\omega_{s},$$

$$G\left\{\frac{b^{2}c^{2}}{a^{2}}\frac{d\omega_{1}}{dt} - \left(\frac{c^{2}a^{2}}{b^{2}} - \frac{a^{2}b^{2}}{c^{2}}\right)\omega_{z}\omega_{s}\right\} - \frac{H}{p^{2}}\left\{b^{2}c^{2}\frac{d\omega_{1}}{dt} - (c^{2}a^{2} - a^{2}b^{2})\omega_{z}\omega_{s}\right\}$$

$$= G\left\{\frac{b^{2}c^{2}}{a^{2}}\frac{d\omega_{1}}{dt} - \left(\frac{c^{2}a^{2}}{b^{2}} - \frac{a^{2}b^{2}}{c^{2}}\right)\omega_{z}\omega_{s}\right\} \text{ by (1)},$$
or
$$G\left(\frac{(b^{2} - c^{2})(c^{2}a^{2} + a^{2}b^{2} - b^{2}c^{2})}{b^{2}c^{2}}\right)\omega_{z}\omega_{s},$$

a result independent of H. Now, if we refer to equation (7) we shall see that the angular momenta of the particle only differ from those of the ellipsoid by having G written in place of H; consequently the moments of the forces, since they do not involve H, must be the same for the particle and the ellipsoid. It follows of course that the moments of the forces about any other axis must be the same in both cases.

In the above investigation of the value of P, I have followed Professor Sylvester, in assuming that the friction acts wholly in a direction perpendicular to the instantaneous The other component of the friction is necessarily indeterminate, since any force in the direction of the instantaneous axis may be combined with it, without altering its I have assumed this component of the friction to be zero; if it be taken to be equal to an arbitrary force F', the value of P above investigated must be increased by The values of the moments of the forces are not, of course, affected by this supposition; and if F' be so chosen that the pressure between the ellipsoid and the rough

or

plane may be zero, the forces acting on the body will become absolutely identical with those acting on the particle G,—that is, we shall have $F'=G\frac{p}{\lambda}\left(\frac{d^2\mu}{dt^2}-n^2\omega\right)$, and F, as before, $=2Gp\frac{d\mu}{dt}$.—February 1870.]

It may be worth while to point out that the correlated and contrarelated bodies treated of in the latter part of Professor Sylvester's paper include, as a particular case, Poinson's "rolling and sliding cone;" for the equation of that cone is

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2-p^2}+\frac{y^2}{b^2-p^2}+\frac{z^2}{c^2-p^2}=0,$$

which is asymptotic to the two following surfaces:-

$$\frac{x^{2}}{a^{2}-p^{2}} + b^{2} - \frac{y^{2}}{p^{2}} + \frac{z^{2}}{c^{2}-p^{2}} = 1,$$

$$\frac{x^2}{p^2-a^2} + \frac{y^2}{p^2-b^2} + \frac{z^2}{p^2-c^2} = 1,$$

the former of which is confocal, the latter contrafocal, to the momental elli soid of the free body. Hence, since the difference between the squares on corresponding semiaxes is in this case p^2 , each of these hyperboloids will roll on the invariable plane through the fixed point, which will be asymptotic to it, while the plane itself rotates with uniform angular velocity λ . Hence the asymptotic cone will move in exactly the same manner.



II. On the Refraction-Equivalents of the Elements. By J. H. GLADSTONE, Ph.D., F.R.S.

Received June 17,-Read June 17, 1869.

In our paper "On the Refraction, Dispersion, and Sensitiveness of Liquids," Mr. Dale and I pointed out a property of bodies which we termed their "specific refractive energy." It is the refractive index minus unity, divided by the density, or in symbolical language $\frac{\mu-1}{d}$. We found that this is a constant unaffected by temperature, and that the specific refractive energy of a mixture is the mean of the specific refractive energies of its constituents. At the same time, however, we admitted that in both cases our numbers were not in perfect accordance with theory, there being some unknown cause which affected them to a slight extent. These conclusions, both in regard to the general law and its qualification, have been since confirmed by continental physicists, and especially by the late rigorous experiments of WULLNER*.

In the same paper we ventured also on the generalization that "every liquid has a specific refractive energy composed of the specific refractive energies of its component elements, modified by the manner of combination." Later research has confirmed this also, extending it to conditions of matter other than liquid, and showing more clearly when such modifications occur, and what is their nature. Professor Landolt, of Bonn, has greatly advanced our knowledge of the subject, and has simplified the calculations by adopting what he terms the refraction-equivalent, that is, the specific refractive energy multiplied by the atomic weight, or $P^{\mu-1}$. Recent investigations in fact tend to the general conclusion that the refraction-equivalent, not only of mixtures, but of every compound body, is the sum of the refraction-equivalents of the elements that compose it.

Were this perfectly true, like the statement "the atomic weight of a compound is the sum of the atomic weights of its constituents," it would be a simple matter to determine the refraction-equivalents of all the elements; and then we should be in a position to calculate the effect of every transparent body of known composition on the rays of light transmitted by it. But it is not absolutely true: even in Landolt's first paper it is evident that there are exceptions; the unknown cause which modifies the refraction of mixtures probably acts in cases of more perfect chemical combination; and the conviction has grown that some elements have two or more refraction-equivalents.

I have continued from time to time to make observations on this subject, and the

* Poge, Annalen, vol. exxxiii. p. 1.

MDCCCLXX.

period seems now to have come at which it is wise to put on permanent record the results at which I have hitherto arrived. I shall give therefore first the data, and then the deductions in reference to each element examined.

The Data.

These consist of the observations of Dulong* on the refraction of gases, of Malus, Brewster, and others† on solids, and of Delffs‡, Jamin, Sauber §, Landolt ||, Haagen¶. and Ketteler** on liquids, in addition to such determinations as I have myself made, whether previously published†† or not.

Most of my fresh experiments have been made with a new instrument constructed by Mr. Browning, with a horizontal instead of a vertical circle, and several other improvements.

I have continued to measure the solar lines A, D, and H, whilst Landolt has preferred the three bright lines of the hydrogen spectrum. I have calculated the refraction for the line A, as being the most free from whatever influence there may be connected with dispersion, and the German professor has reckoned for hydrogen α , which is identical with the solar C. These rays are so near together that the difference can scarcely affect the first place of decimals in a refraction-equivalent. When the determinations are made with greater precision, it will be for physicists to decide which shall be finally adopted.

In the subjoined Tables the actual refractive indices are given, and the refractionequivalents as calculated from them. For the complete data, I must refer to the papers of the several observers, and to Appendices I., II., and III., where my own new experiments are tabulated.

Elementary substance.	Condition.	Part of spectrum.	Refractive index.	Authority for index.	Refraction-equivalent
Carbon	Diamond	Bright	2.470	Brewster, &c.	5.18
	**	Red	2.4606	Schrauf.	4-85
Sulphur	Solid	Bright	2.03	Various.	16.0
	Liquid	A	1.9024	Gladstone and Dale.	15.98
,,	•	D	1.9295	,,	16-47
Phosphorus	Solid	D	2-1168		18-98
,,	Liquid	A	2.0389		18-27
	,,	D	2-0746		18-89
Bromine	,,	A	1.6260	Gladstone.	16.23
Chlorine	Gaseous	Bright	1-000779	Dulong.	8-87
Hydrogen	**	1	1-000138		1.53
Oxygen	**	**	1.000272		3.04
Nitrogen	**	**	1.900300		3-30

TABLE I.—Simple Elements.

- * Annales de Chimie, xxxi. p. 154.
- # Poss. Annalen, lxxxi. p. 470.
- | Ibid. (xvii. 353, exxii. 545, exxiii. 595.
- ** Ibid. exxiv. 390.

- † Ency. Brit., Article "Optics."
- § Ibid. exvii. 577.
- ¶ Ibid. cxxiii. 125.

^{††} The papers of Mr. Dale and myself in the Philosophical Transactions, 1858, p. 887, and 1863, p. 317; Phil. Mag. July 1859; also Brit. Assoc. Report, 1863, Trans. Sec. p. 12; my paper in Journal Chem. Soc. 1865, p. 108.

TABLE II.—Binary Compounds.

Substance.	Formula.	Part of Spectrum.	Refractive index.	Authority for index.	Refraction- equivalent
Bisulphide of Carbon		A	1-6121	Gladstone and Dale	36-67
			1-61846	Wüllner	37.20
		D	1.6299	Gladstone and Dale	37.73
Gaseous .		Bright	1.001500	Dulong	33-21
Carbonic Oxide		.,,	1.000340	,	7.53
Acid Gas	'CO	,, 1	1.000449	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	10 03
Cyanogen	.lcn'	' " i	1.000834	*	9.18
Tetrachloride of Carbon	icci	Ä	1.4560	Gladstone	44-2
	. ,	C	1-45789	Haagen	44.21
Olefiant Gas	C'H	Bright	1.000678	Dulong	15.09
Amylene	C H	A	1.3844	Gladstone and Dale	37-63
Oil of Turpentine	C'H	Ā	1.4614	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	72-9
Hydride of Œnanthyle	C H		1-3899	,, ,,	55.0
" Capryl	C H	Ā	1.3973	1 21 21 22	62.95
Sulphurous Acid Gas	SÕ.		1.000665	Dulong	14.91
" " Liquid		D	1:33835	Ketteler	14.59
Tydrosulphuric Acid	or s		1.000644	Dulong	14-28
Chloride of Sulphur	IS CI	C	1.64368	Haagen	51-64
Nater, Solid	H O	Ď	1.3089	Gladstone and Dale	6.05
T :		A	1.32924	Gladstone	5-926*
" laquid			1.33328		5-999*
,, ,, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,		1 = 1	1:34393	,,	6-191*
37			1:33111	Landolt	5.96
		$\tilde{\mathbf{p}}$	1.33250	Kühlmann	6.006
,		Bright	1.000260	Dulong	5.778
" Gaseous	TTCU	Dright	1.000449	, ,	10.71
Iydrochloric Acid	HCl	,,	1.000385	,,	8.60
immonia		,,		,,	
itrous Oxide	N. O		1-000503	,,	11.22
Vitrie	.DO		1.000303	Gladstone and Dale	6.74
erchloride of Phosphorus	. PCI ₃	A	1.5062	Gladstone and Date	48:3
	. PBr	A	f-6730		63.36
rsenious Anhydride	. As ₂ U,	: :: i	1.748	Descloizeau	40.03
erchloride of Arsenie	.: As Cl.,	C	1.5920	Haagen	49.59
entachloride of Antimony	.,80 Cl,	C	1.5845		74-61
		A I	1.5739	Gladstone	74-03
etrachloride of Silicon	. St Cl,	c ·	1.4119	Haagen	47.06
	. Sn Cl,		1.5070	1	59.05
,, ,, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	ا ا	A	1.5035	Gladstone	58.76
Titanium	Ti Cl,		1.5856	, ,,	65.08
hloride of Sodium	. Na Cl	A	1.5369	,,	15 02
'alomel	.'Hg2Cl2	Bright	1-970	Brewster	65.46 .
luor-spar			1.436		10.76
uartz, ordinary ray			1.5484	Malus	12.41
., extraordinary ray			1.5582	!	12.63

^{*} These are the numbers adopted throughout the series of aqueous solutions, with the new instrument, recorded in Appendix II. The water was purposely not deprived of air.

TABLE III .- Ternary and other Compounds.

Substance. For	mula.	Part of spectrum.	Refractive index.	Authority for index.	Refraction equivalent
Alcohol		Λ	1.3615	Gladstone	20-857*
Methylated Acetone C, H, O Butyrone C, H, O Lurostearate of Ethyl C, H, O Nitrate C H, C		D	1.3655	,,	21-084*
w 3 1 3 1 3 1 4 5		H	1.3769	,,	21.745*
Methylated Acetone	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Ą	1.3817	,, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	33.89
Laurenteen of File C	C B VO	A	1.4073	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	56.29
Change of Ethyl	C ₂ H ₅ JO ₂	Red B	1·4240 1·362552	Delffs	111.5
Nitrate , C, H, NC		В	1.3768	Sauber	25·57 30·94
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	3	Red	1.381	Jamin	31-17
Nitrate C ₂ H ₃ NC " Amyl C ₃ H ₁₁ N Carbonic Ether (C ₃ H ₃) ₂ Silicic (C ₄ H ₃) ₂ Boracic (C ₄ H ₃) ₂ Trictitylarsine As (C ₄ H ₃) Mercuric Methyl Hg (C H Ethyl Hg (C H Canc-sugar C ₃ H ₁₂ C Phosgene CO Cl. Chloroform CH Cl	0	A	1.4065	Gladstone and Dale	54.01
Carbonic Ether (C. H.)	co	A :	1-3779	Chadsone and Date	45 86
Silicie(C, H,)	Si O	Ā	1.3781		84:38
Boracic , (C, H,)	B. O	Ā	1 3676	"	65.95
Triethylarsine	5)3	A	1.4597	1	64-69
Mercuric Methyl Hg (C H	3)2	A	1 5229	Gladstone	40.54
" Ethyl	(5)2	A :	1.5162	Gladstone and Dale	54.48
Cane-sugarC ₁₂ H ₂₂ C) ₁₁	Bright ;	1.541	Brewster	119.3
Phosgene COCI,		· À (1 001159	Dulong	25 64
Chloroform CH Cl			1.4400	Gladstone and Dale	35-25
CH Cl.		A. ;	1.5135	, ,,,,,,	52-13
Rightonida of Ethylana C H Cl		A. C (1·5563 1·44201	Haagen "	69-62
Chlorethylane C H Cl		A	1.4619	Gladstone and Dale	34·84 43·51
Ribeomide CH C	Br	A	1.5430		53.73
Bromethylene C. H. Br.	2,	Â.	1.5809	*******	59.28
Bromoform		Ā	1.5554	,,	53.31
Bromide of Ethyl		\bar{c}	1.42132	Haagen "	31.46
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		В	1.4138	Sauber	32-15
,, Amyl C ₅ H ₁₁ Br	·i	C !	1.43856	Haagen	54-98
Bibromide of Ethylene C, H, Br,		C	1.53389		45.98
·s sy ·········' y	********	Red	1.532	Jamin	45.82
odide of Methyl CH31	•••••	A	1.5171	Gladstone and Dale	33-50
T		S	1.52434	Haagen	32.89
odide of Methyl CH ₃ I Ethyl CL ₁ H ₁ I Propyl CL ₂ H ₁ I Amyl C ₂ H ₁ I C ₃ H ₁ I		C' Red	1.50812	7 "	40.96
,, ,, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	**********	A	1·503 1·5026	Jamin	40 81
Propel C H I	••••••	A	1.4934	Gladstone and Dale	40 78 48 99
. Amyl C. H. I		Ā	1.4804		63.62
4 22001 11111111111111111111111111111111		ē !	1.48714	Haagen	65 46
'hlorai C. H.Cl. C	J 0	Red	1.461	Jamin	45.3
hosphite of Ethyl	PO,	A	1.3996	Gladstone	61.76
ulphuric Acid H SO."		Α.,	1.4205		21.90
itric AcidHNO.		A	1.4017		16.46
hloride of AmmoniumNH, Cl		Bright '	1.625	Brewster	22.08
Amyl C, H ₁ 1		Ä.	1.4810	Gladstone and Dale	43.79
		A.	1.6143	Gladstone	57.96
", Chromium Cr O, Cl, itrate of Lead Pb 2 NO, ulphate of Barium (ord. ray) Ba SO,	···········	T. A.	1.5177	** ************************************	42.08
drate of Lead);	Bright	1.758	Brewster	57.0
inputate of Darmin (ord, ray)	·····,	,,	1·6352 1·6468	Malus	33.29
rvolite , Vo Al W		••	1:346	Brewster	33·90 24·63
ryolite , (ext. ray) , ", AI F , I	P. }	" .	1.458	Wollaston	126.78
rcon, least		**	1.961	Brewster	39.22
. greatest		,,	2.015	Diewsor	41.42
$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{(rcon, least} & & \text{Zr Si O}_4 \\ \text{, greatest} & & & \text{Na, B, O}_{-} \\ \text{orax} & & & \text{Na, B, O}_{-} \\ \end{array}$	}		1.475		45.8+60
errocyanide of Potassium K, Fe (CN	(),	1	1.586		******
.3H, O`	7 1		1.390	.,	117.28 + 13

Solutions.

If the refraction-equivalent of a mixture or of a chemical compound be the sum of the refraction-equivalents of its constituents, the same may be expected to hold good in the case of a solution. This consideration led me to examine a large number of aqueous

^{*} These are the numbers employed in calculating the alcoholic solutions given in Appendix III.

solutions of salts, bodies which in their solid state are generally doubly refracting, and necessarily present difficulties that are not met with in the examination of liquids.

The method usually adopted was as follows:—An amount of salt representing the

atomic weight was dissolved in n atoms of water, and the refractive index and density of the solution were taken. From these was reckoned the refraction-equivalent, and subtracting from this n times the refraction-equivalent of water for the solar line A, there remained the refraction-equivalent of the dissolved salt for that part of the spectrum. Thus to take an actual instance: 1 atom or 58.5 parts of chloride of sodium were dissolved in 12 atoms or 216 parts of water. The refractive index of the solution for A was 1.3683, and the specific gravity at the same temperature was 1.168; $\frac{\mu A - 1}{d}$ therefore was 0.3154, and $P \frac{\mu A - 1}{d}$ was $0.3154 \times (58.5 + 216)$, that is, 86.57. From this, the refraction-equivalent of the whole compound system, 12 times 5.926 (i. e. 71.12) the refraction-equivalent of water was subtracted, leaving 86.57 - 71.12, or 15.45, as the refraction-equivalent of chloride of sodium. That a number so arrived at fairly represents the action exerted by the chemical compound on light, is evident from the following considerations.

1st. The refraction-equivalent 15·45 closely approximates to that previously determined for chloride of sodium from the examination of solid rock-salt, namely 15·02. Similarly, cane-sugar dissolved in water gave 119·0, while from Brewster's observation of the crystallized solid it should be 119·3 (see Table III.). Again, crystallized borax, after making allowance for the refraction due to the water of crystallization, gave 45·8, while from its aqueous solution its equivalent was determined at 45·9. Chloride of ammonium, solid and in solution, gave respectively 22·08 and 22·33.

2nd. The refraction-equivalents of several solid organic bodies, as determined from their aqueous solutions, agree closely with what might be calculated from LANDOLT'S values for C, H, and O. Thus,

		1	Experiment.	Calculation.
Citric Acid			60.89	61.4
Racemic Acid.			45.54	45.8
Tartaric Acid .			45.29	45.8

3rd. The refraction-equivalent as reckoned from a solution is not affected by varying the amount of water. This has been proved in the case of the chlorides of sodium, potassium, strontium, and copper, iodide of sodium, sulphate of ammonium, and other salts, and even in the case of the combinations of water with strong acids, such as sulphuric and nitric acids. The following experiment on chloride of sodium will serve as an illustration.

Composi	Refraction- equivalent of Na Cl.	Variation from mean.			
l atom Chloride of Sodium	+ 10.74	atoms Water		15-83	-0.07
59	+ 12	**		15-45	+0.05
**	i 12	,,		15.51	+0-11
21	+ 12	,,		15.51	+0.11
,	+ 14	**		15.26	-0.14
**	+ 16	,,		15.32	-0.08
79	+ 18	12		15.47	+0.07
	+ 20	,,		15.43	+0.03
**	+ 22	,		15.55	+0.15
21	+ 24	,,		15.51	+0.11
**	+ 26	,, •	********	15:37	-0.03
•,	+ 34	,,		15.30	-0-10

This shows also that under favourable circumstances a refraction-equivalent may be depended on to the first place of decimals, but not to the second.

4th. The calculated refraction-equivalent is the same whether water or alcohol be the solvent employed. This was tested in the following cases, the actual observations for which are given in Appendix III.

TABLE IV.

Substance.	Aqueous solution.	Alcoholic solution.
Cobalt Chloride	32-02	32-38
Copper Chloride (line D)	34.00	34.72
Mercuric Chloride	41-23	35.59
Potassium Iodide	35-72	35-1
Potassium Sulphocyanide	33.47	33.7
Ammonia	9.49	8-97

The mercuric salt appears to be exceptional, but this metal will be seen later on to be anomalous.

But whatever may be the worth of these considerations, an examination of some corresponding series of salts in solution, viz. the chlorides, bromides, and iodides, convinced me at once that we thus obtain numbers made up of two component parts, the one due to the base, the other to the radical with which it is combined; and the multiplication of these experiments on a large variety of salts has only served to deepen this conviction.

The actual observations will be found in the Appendix, but the refraction-equivalents thus arrived at are given in the following Table.

As the determination of the refraction-equivalent of a salt in solution depends on the difference between it and the refraction-equivalent of water, it is evident that experimental errors will be multiplied undesirably if the water be large in quantity as compared with the salt. Hence the most soluble salts give the most trustworthy results. In some instances the solubility of the salts depended on the addition of some other salt or acid to the solution; in such cases the refraction due to the salt or acid, as well as that due to the water, has been deducted, and in the following Tables the number so arrived at has been marked with an asterisk (*).

DR. GLADSTONE ON THE REFRACTION-EQUIVALENTS OF THE ELEMENTS. 15

TABLE V.—Refraction-equivalents of Compounds in Solution.

					Monebasic			•		Bibasic.	
Substance.	Atomic weight.	Chloride.	Bromide.	Todide.	Nitrate.	For- miste.	Acetate,	Cyanide.	Sulphate.	Hyposul- phite.	Lactate.
Univalent.			i		1						
Potassium	39-1	18-83	25.09	35.72	22:11	20.24	27.78	17.23	33.11	47.88	76.25
Sodium	23	15.40	21.89	32.52	18-89		24.34		26.92	41-80	69.45
Lithium		14.86	20-56	31.49		*****	23:25		24.26		
Casium	133	24.4				******					
Rubidium	85.4	24.28		*****		******			45-95*		
Silver	108	1		******	27.44			25.52*		66.3*	
Thallium	204				37.2	32.88	40-45				
Ammonium		22:33	28-53	38.90	25.44		31.57		39-22		
		14.22	20.65	31.17	16.50	13.81	21.29		22.45		
Hydrogen	1	14.22	20.00	01 17	1000	1001	~~~		22 10		
BIVALENT.											
Barium	137	37.32	50.72	69.72	43.26	39.82	56.44				78.98
Strontium		35.04	47-52		41.68	39-04					78-2
Calcium	40	32.28	44.32	64.66	38.66	33.94	49.80			42.52	
Magnesium	24	28.88			35.92	30-80	46-02		24.18	38.52	
Cerium		35.08									
Didymium	96	34.18			i						
Zinc	65-2	30-76	43.96	65-67	38.52	34.95	48.80	26.2*	27.61		
Cadmium	112	35.32	47.88		41.38				30.34		
Copper	63.4	33:40			40-04				27.80		
Iron	56	32.86	46.26						29-09		
Nickel	58.8	31.39*	2020		38:30				28.16		
	58.8	32.02	1		38.48		50-06		29-01		
Cobalt	55	33.58	47-24	65:14	40.22		51.34		27.83		73.8
Manganese	207	1			52-56	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	64.52				1
Lead		41.00		*****	48.80*	•••••		34.16	•••••		
Mercury	200	41.23			1						
Palladium	106.5	43.90*		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	!	*****		•••••	•	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
TRIVALENT.					1						1
Aluminium	27.4	40.5*							67.7		
Iron	56	51.27		*****	62-20*				90-9*		
Chromium	52.2	48-2*							82-46*		
Gold		56-11*				******					
Rhodium	104.4	65.08*		******							
0											
QUADRIVALENT.					: 1						
Platinum	197.4	71.06*				*****		******			

TABLE V.—Supplementary.

,		Monobasic.				Bibasic.					
Substance. Atomic weight.	Alco- holate.	Hydrate.	Silicate.	Hypo- phosphite.	Nitrite.	Tartrate.	Chro- mate,	Bichro- mate.	Oxalate.	Car- bonate.	
UNIVALENT. Potassium Sodium Lithium Ammonium Hydrogen	39-1 23 7 18 1	28-10 24-61 20-857	12·61 9·20 15·42 5·92632	31·03* 27·28	27:28	19-31 15-50	57-87 50-85 45-29	51·50 46·08 43·62 58·12	82·55 74·87 72·60 87·06	37-71 42-22 23-44	28·77 22·35
BIVALENT. Calcium Manganese		******		•••••	46-88 48-10			*		······	

	Atomia		Monobasic.		Bibasic.			Tribasic.	Quadribasic.
Substance.	Substance. Atomic weight. F	Fluoride.	Arsenite.	Sulpho- cyanide.	Sulphite.	Biborate.	Per- manganate.	Ferri- cyanide.	Ferro- cyanide.
Potassium Sodium	23	9.55	26:14*	33-47	35-10*	45.9	91.8	102:05	114-72

A glance at this Table will be enough to show that the numbers are not independent of one another, but that there is a remarkable relation between them. Thus the bromides are between six and seven higher than the chlorides corresponding to them in the case of the univalent metals, and double that number in the case of the bivalent; again, the line of sodium salts consists of numbers from three to four lower than the corresponding potassium salts in the monobasic series, and double that number in the bibasic. This kind of relation is precisely what was to be expected if the refraction-equivalent of a salt is really made up of the refraction-equivalents of its constituents. These differences are drawn out in the following Tables. Table VI. exhibits the differences between the refraction-equivalent of potassium indicated by the letter A, and those of the other metals, together with ammonium and hydrogen, the radicals with which they are combined being indicated by Greek letters. Table VII. shows the differences between the refraction-equivalent of chlorine, represented by a, and those of the other radicals, the refraction-equivalent of each metal being represented by a different Roman letter.

TABLE VI.

Substance.	Chloride.	Bromide.	Iodide.	Nitrate.	Formiste.
UNIVALENT. Potassium Sodium Lithium Casium Rubidium Silver Thallium Ammonium	A+a A-343+a A-397+a A+5-6+a A+5-45+a 	A+β A-3·20+β A-4·53+β	A+y A-3·20+y A-4·23+y	A+& A-3·22+& 	A+e
Hydrogen Bivalent.	A-4.61+«	Α-4.44+β	Α-4.55+γ		
Barium Strontium Calcium Magnesium Cerium Didymium Zine Cadmium Copper Iron Nickel Cobalt Manganese Lead Mercury Palladium	2(A-2.82+a) 2(A-2.04+a)	$\begin{array}{c} 2(A+0.27+\beta) \\ 2(A-1.33+\beta) \\ 2(A-2.93+\beta) \\ \vdots \\ 2(A-3.11+\beta) \\ 2(A-1.15+\beta) \\ 2(A-1.96+\beta) \\ \vdots \\ 2(A-1.47+\beta) \\ \vdots \\ \end{array}$	2(A-0-86+\gamma) 2(A-3-39+\gamma)	$\begin{array}{c} 2(A-0.48+\delta) \\ 2(A-1.27+\delta) \\ 2(A-2.78+\delta) \\ 2(A-2.78+\delta) \\ 2(A-4.15+\delta) \\ 2(A-1.42+\delta) \\ 2(A-1.42+\delta) \\ 2(A-2.09+\delta) \\ 2(A-2.87+\delta) \\ 2(A-2.87+\delta) \\ 2(A-2.87+\delta) \\ 2(A-2.94+\delta) \\ 2(A-2.94+\delta) \\ 2(A-2.99+\delta) \\ 2(A-2.99+\delta) \\ \end{array}$	2(A - 0·33+ε) 2(A - 0·72+ε) 2(A - 0·72+ε) 2(A - 3·27+ε) 2(A - 4·84+ε)
TRIVALENT.				3(A-1·38+č)	
Iron Chrom:um Gold Rhodium	$ \begin{array}{c} 3(A-1.59+a) \\ 3(A-2.8,+a) \\ 3(A-0.13+a) \\ 3(A+2.86+a) \end{array} $				
QUADRIVALENT. Platinum		•••••			

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Table VI.—(continued.)

Substance.	Acetate.	Cyanide.	Sulphate.	Hyposulphite.	Lactate.
URIVALENT. Potassium Sodium Lithium Sesium Rubidium Silver Thallium Ammonium	A+Z A- 3·44+Z A- 4·53+Z 	A+8·29+7	$\begin{array}{c} 2 \underline{A} + \theta \\ 2 (\underline{A} - 3 \cdot 10) + \theta \\ 2 (\underline{A} - 4 \cdot 42) + \theta \\ \vdots \\ 2 (\underline{A} + 5 \cdot 42) + \theta \\ \vdots \\ 2 (\underline{A} + 3 \cdot 05) + \theta \\ 2 (\underline{A} - 5 \cdot 33) + \theta \end{array}$	2A+¢ 2(A-3·04)+¢ 	2A+κ 2(A-3·40)+κ
Hydrogen Bivalent. Barium	$A = 6.49 + \zeta$ $2(A + 0.44 + \zeta)$			**********	2(A+1·30)+x 2(A+0·9)+x
Strontium	2(A-2.88+z) 2(A-4.77+z)	***********	2(A-4·46)+θ	$2(A-2.68)+\iota \\ 2(A-4.68)+\iota$	
Cerium Didymium Zinc	2(A- 3·35+ζ)	2(A-4·13+η)	$2(A-2.75)+\theta$ $2(A-1.38)+\theta$		
Cadmium	***********		$ \begin{array}{l} 2(A-2.65)+\theta \\ 2(A-2.01)+\theta \\ 2(A-2.47)+\theta \\ 2(A-2.05)+\theta \end{array} $		
Cobalt Manganese Lead	$ \begin{array}{c} 2(A - 2.75 + \zeta) \\ 2(A - 2.11 + \zeta) \\ 2(A + 4.48 + \zeta) \end{array} $	2(A-0·15+η)	2(A-2·64)+θ	***************************************	2(A-1·3)+×
Palladium TRIVALENT.		2(A=010+4)			
Aluminium	••••••		$\begin{vmatrix} 3(2(A-5\cdot3)+\theta) \\ 3(2(A-1\cdot4)+\theta) \\ 3(2(A-2\cdot81)+\theta) \end{vmatrix}$		
Gold Rhodium			•		***************************************
QUADRIVALENT. Platinum				•	

TABLE VI.—Supplementary.

Substance.	Alcoholate.	Hydrate.	Silicate.	Hypophosphite.	Nitrite.
UNIVALENT. Potassium Sodium Lithium Ammonium Hydrogen	A+λ A-3·52+λ A-7·24+λ	$A + \mu$ $A - 3 \cdot 41 + \mu$ $A + 2 \cdot 81 + \mu$ $A - 6 \cdot 68 + \mu$	A+v A-375+v	Δ+ξ	A+0 A-3·81+0
BIVALENT. Calcium Manganese				$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c } 2(A-3\cdot84+\xi) \\ 2(A-3\cdot23+\xi) \end{array} $	

Substance.	Tartrate.	Chromate.	Bichromate.	Oxalate.	Carbonate.
UNIVALENT. Potassium Sodium Lithium Ammonium Hydrogen	$2(A-3.51)+\pi$	$2A+\rho$ $2(A-2.71)+\rho$ $2(A-3.94)+\rho$ $2(A+3.31)+\rho$	$\begin{array}{c} 2A + \sigma \\ 2(A - 3.84) + \sigma \\ 2(A - 4.97) + \sigma \\ 2(A + 2.25) + \sigma \\ & \cdots \end{array}$	2A+τ 2(A+2·25)+τ 2(A-7·13)+τ	2A+v 2(A-3·21)+v
BIVALENT.					
Calcium Manganese					•••••

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TABLE VII.

Substance.	Chloride.	Bromide.	Iodide.	Nitrate.	Formiste.
Univalent.					
Potassium	A +=	A+a+6.26	A+#+16-89	A +a+3.28	A+a+141
Sodium	$\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{s}$	B+++6.49	B+a+17·12	B +a+3.49	
Lithium	C +a	C+++5.70	C+a+16.63	************	
Rubidium	$D + \alpha$				
Silver	********			$\mathbf{E} + \boldsymbol{\beta}$	********
Thallium	*******			$\mathbf{F} + \boldsymbol{\beta}$	$F + \beta - 4.3$
Ammonium	G+a	G+a+6.20	G+a+16.57	G +a+3-11	
Hydrogen	H+a	H+a+6.43	H+a+16-95	H + a + 2.28	H+a-041
BIVALENT.					
Barium	I +2a	$I + 2(\alpha + 6.70)$	I +2(a+16.20)	$1 + 2(\alpha + 2.97)$	$I + 2(\alpha + 1.25)$
Strontium	K +2a	K+2(z+6.24)	- 1-(- 1)	K +2 =+3.32)	$K + 2(\alpha + 2.00)$
Calcium	L +2a	L+2(a+6.02)	L+2(a+16·19)	L +2(x+3.19)	L+2(a+0.83)
Magnesium	M +2a	D +2(2+002)	17 + 2 (m + 10 10)	M +2(a+3.52)	M+2(a+0.96)
Zine	N +2a	N+2(a+6.60)	N+2(x+17.45)	N +2(a+3.88)	N+2(a+2.09)
Cadmium	0 +2	0+2(a+6.28)	11 +2(2+1, 10)	$O + 2(x + 3 \cdot 03)$	11 72(272 00)
		0+2(4+020)	1	P + 2(x + 3.32)	
Copper	$P + 2\alpha$	$Q_1 + 2(a + 6.70)$		1 72(27000)	********
Iron	Q + 2a	,	·····	R +2(a+3.45)	
Nickel	$R + 2\alpha$				**********
Cobalt	$S + 2\alpha$	m 10, 10,000	m . 0/ . 15.76	S +2(*+3·23)	
Manganese	T + 2a	T + 2(a + 6.83)	T+2(x+15.78)	$T + 2(\alpha + 3.32)$	
Lead		***************************************		$V + 2\beta$	
Mercury	$W+2\alpha$	***************************************	**********	$W+2(\alpha+3.78)$	••••••
TRIVALENT.					
Aluminium	$X + 3\alpha$				
Iron	Y +34			Y + 3(a + 3.64)	
Chromium	Z +3a				

Substance.	Acetate.	Cyanide.	Sulphate.	Hyposulphite.	Lactate.
UNIVALENT. Potassium Sodium Lithium Rubidium Silver Thallium Ammonium Hydrogen	C+z+8·39 F+β+3·25 G+z+9·24	A+α-1·60 E+β-1·92	$ \begin{array}{c} 2(\Delta + \alpha) - 4.55 \\ 2(B + \alpha) - 3.88 \\ 2(C + \alpha) - 5.46 \\ 2(D + \alpha) - 2.61 \\ & \dots \\ 2(C + \alpha) - 5.44 \\ 2(H + \alpha) - 5.99 \end{array} $	2(Δ+α)+10·22 2(B+α)+11·00 	2(A+a)+38·59 2(B+a)+38·65
BIVALENT. Barium Strontium Calcium Magnesium	L+2(a+8.76)	***************************************	M+2a-4·70	L+2s+10·24 M+2s+ 9·64	I+2s+41·66 K+2s+43·2
Zinc	N+2(a+9-02)	N+2(a-2·28)	$ \begin{array}{c cccc} N + 2\alpha - 3 \cdot 15 \\ O + 2\alpha - 4 \cdot 98 \\ P + 2\alpha - 5 \cdot 60 \end{array} $		
Iron Nickel Cobalt Manganese	S+2(x+9-02)		$\begin{array}{c} Q + 2\alpha - 3.77 \\ R + 2\alpha - 3.23 \\ S + 2\alpha - 3.01 \\ T + 2\alpha - 5.75 \end{array}$		T+2\alpha+40.2
Lead	V+2(\beta+5.98)	W+2(x-3.53)			
Aluminium Iron Chromium			$\begin{array}{c} 2(X+3x)-3(4\cdot5) \\ 2(Y+3x)-3(3\cdot9) \\ 2(Z+3x)-3(5\cdot41) \end{array}$		

TABLE VII.—Supplementary.

Substance.	Alcoholate.	Hydrate.	Silicate.	Hypophosphite.	Nitrite.
Univalent. Potassium Sodium Lithium Ammonium Hydrogen	A+α+9·27 B+α+9·21 H+α+6·637	$\begin{array}{c} A + \alpha - 6 \cdot 22 \\ B + \alpha - 6 \cdot 20 \\ \dots \dots \dots \\ G + \alpha - 6 \cdot 91 \\ H + \alpha - 8 \cdot 294 \end{array}$	A+α+12·20 B+α+11·88	A+a+8·45	Δ+α+0·48 Β+α+0·10
BIVALENT. Calcium Manganese				L+2(a+7·30) T+2(a+7·26)	

Substance.	Tartrate.	Chromate.	Bichromate.	Oxalate.	Carbonate.
UNIVALENT. Potassium Sodium Lathium Ammonium Hydrogen BUNALENT.	2(B+a)+20·05	$ \begin{array}{c} 2(A+\alpha)+13.84 \\ 2(B+\alpha)+15.28 \\ 2(C+\alpha)+13.90 \\ 2(C+\alpha)+13.46 \\ \\ \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 2(A+\alpha)+44.89 \\ 2(B+\alpha)+44.07 \\ 2(C+\alpha)+42.88 \\ 2(C+\alpha)+42.40 \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2(A+\alpha)+0.05\\ \dots\\ 2(G+\alpha)-2.44\\ 2(H+\alpha)-5.00 \end{array}$	2(A+\alpha)-8.89 2(B+\alpha)-8.45
Calcium					

Table VII.—Supplementary.

Substance.	Fluoride.	Arsenite.	Sulphocyanide.	Sulphite.	
Potassium Sodium	Λ+α-9-28	B+&+10.70	A+a+14.64	2(A+a)-2·56	
Substance.	Biborate.	Permanganate.	Ferricyanide.	Ferrocyanide.	

The differential numbers along a line in Table VI., or down a column in Table VII., are sufficiently near to show that we are dealing with a reality; but they are sufficiently wide apart to show that we must rely upon the average of the numbers and not on any single experiment, if we wish to get a refraction-equivalent true to the first place of decimals. Unfortunately all experimental errors fall upon this residuary number.

The only exception to this regularity which is worth notice, is in the case of hydrogen, which is A-4.5 or thereabouts in the hydracids, but drops to somewhere about A-6.7 in the organic acids. This seems to indicate that in the first group hydrogen has a refraction-equivalent somewhere about 2.2 higher than in the other.

Though these Tables alone do not afford us the means of determining a single refraction-equivalent of a metal or of any other element, it is evident that the refraction-equivalents of the whole would be a simple matter of calculation if we could determine with certainty the value of any letter, Roman or Greek, that is, the refraction-equivalent of any one of the constituents. The means of arriving at this will be explained in the second part of this paper under the head of Potassium.

Deductions.

Carbon.—Crystallized carbon (that is diamond) has a refraction-equivalent of about 5.0; the same number was arrived at by LANDOLT from a consideration of a multitude of organic substances. If we compare together the two gaseous oxides, CO, 7.53, and CO₂, 10.03, it is clear that the second atom of oxygen is represented by 2.5, and taking the first atom at the same it leaves 5.03 for carbon.

If, indeed, anything is certain in this whole subject, it is that carbon, whether pure or in combination with other elements, and thus forming solid liquid or gaseous bodies, exerts the same influence on the rays of light transmitted by it, and that this influence may be expressed by the number 5.0; but the cumulative evidence on which this conviction rests is derived from the whole range of organic bodies, and from many other compounds of carbon that will be considered under other headings. The apparent exceptions, such as the aromatic series of organic compounds, may be accounted for by a part of the hydrogen having a higher refraction-equivalent than it usually exhibits*.

Hydrogen.—According to Dulong's observations hydrogen gas has a refraction-equivalent of 1.53, and it seems to have the same in water; Landolt, however, has shown that in the large majority of the organic compounds examined by him, it does not exceed 1.3. This is confirmed by such observations as those on the new ketones, or on laurostearate of ethyl, given in Table III. Landolt examined no hydrocarbons, but assuming C=5.0, the series in Table III. give the following values for H:—

Olefiant Gas	gives	1.27
Amylene	"	1.26
Oil of Turpentine	"	1.43
Hydride of Œnanthyl	,,	1.25
Hydride of Capryl .	••	1.27

This is the value of H in acetic, formic, tartaric, and oxalic acids; but from Table VI. it would appear that the hydrogen in hydrochloric, hydrobromic, and hydriodic acids has a value about 2·2 higher than in these organic acids; it must therefore be about 3·5. The same element in nitric and sulphuric acids seems to have a value intermediate between these.

Oxygen.—Gaseous oxygen, according to Dulong, is 3.04; and Landolf found that 3.0 suited well for calculating the refraction-equivalent of the great group of organic compounds. There is, however, more uncertainty about this number; most of the substances examined by the German professor contained comparatively little of the element, and his best comparisons give a somewhat lower figure.

Assuming C=5.0, and H=1.3,

Sugar		gives	0 = 2.8
Carbonic Acid.		>>	0 = 2.5
Carbonic Oxide		"	0 = 2.5
Oxalic Acid		,,,	0 = 2.7

^{*} See Postscript.

```
Formic Acid . . . gives O=3·1

Tartaric Acid . . . ,, O=2·9

Citric Acid . . . , O=2·9
```

On comparing nitrate of potassium, KNO₃, 22·11, with nitrite of potassium, KNO₂, 19·31, we deduce for O the value 2·8.

From this diversified evidence, 2.9 may be fairly taken as the probable value of oxygen.

Sulphur.—The pure element, whether solid or liquid, has a refraction-equivalent of 16·0 or 16·3; as deduced from CS₂, 36·7, it will be 15·85. Again, the difference between KCNS, 33·47, and KCN, 17·23, gives S=16·24; it will be seen that it has a similar value in chloride of sulphur. It is evident, however, that in the two gases, H₂S, 14·28, and SO₂, 14·91, or in liquified SO₂, 14·59, it cannot be 16; nor yet in its other oxygen compound, H₂SO₄, 21·9.

Phosphorus.—The refraction-equivalent for this very dispersive elementary body is 18·3 for the line A. In its compounds with the halogens it seems to exert the same influence on light, but in phosphoric acid its refractive energy must be greatly diminished.

Chlorine.—The gas itself has the refraction-equivalent of 8.87, as reckoned from Dulong's experiments, and the same figure represents it in gaseous phospene; but a somwehat higher number is arrived at when liquid compounds are examined. Thus, taking the numbers previously given for carbon, hydrogen, sulphur, and phosphorus, we find—

From	Tetrachloride of Carbon	Chlorine	=	9.8
"	Chloroform	,,	=	9.6
,,	,, (HAAGEN)	,,	=	9.7
,,	Bichloride of Chlorethylene	٠,	=	9.9
27	Chloride of Sulphur	,,	=	9.8
12	Terchloride of Phosphorus .	,,	=1	0.0
,,	Bichloride of Ethylene	,,	==	9.8
"	Chloral	,,	=]	0.4

Moreover the substitution of chlorine for hydrogen in benzole gives for each Cl-H 8.7, that is Cl=10.0. The mean of these numbers is 9.9.

Bromine.—The liquid element has a refraction-equivalent of 16:23. The determinations of compounds of carbon, hydrogen, and phosphorus give:—

From	Bromoform	Bromine =15	7
,,	Bibromide of Bromethylene.	" =15·	1
,,	Bibromide of Chlorethylene.	" =15·	0
,,	Terbromide of Phosphorus .	,, =15	0
**	Bromide of Ethyl	,, =15	0
97	Bromide of Amyl	=15	7
	Bibromide of Ethylene	,, =15.	4

The average of these numbers is 15.3.

Iodine.—Solutions of iodine have hitherto given results which are not comparable among themselves.

```
From Iodide of Methyl . . . . Iodine = 24.6
,, ,, Ethyl . . . , = 24.3
,, ,, Propyl . . . , = 24.9
,, ,, Amyl . . . , = 24.3
```

The average of these is 24.5; HAAGEN gives 24.87 for the line C, as deduced from the same series of compounds.

It would appear that the differences between the three halogens are as follows: Br=Cl+5·4, and I=Cl+14·6. This does not exactly agree with the differences between the three series of dissolved haloid salts, where Br=Cl+6·36, and I=Cl+16·46.

Potassium.—The number of potassium salts in solution whose refraction-equivalents have been determined is 26. There are two ways of arriving at the equivalent of the metal itself from these data. Ist. If we know the value of any of the radicals conjoined with potassium (expressed in Table VI. by Greek letters), it is a simple question of subtraction. 2nd. If we know the value of any other capital letter in Table VII., we have merely to add to it, or subtract from it, the mean number representing the difference between it and A, and we arrive at A itself, that is the refraction-equivalent of potassium.

For calculation by the first method, the numbers already arrived at may be employed, namely, C=5, $H=1\cdot3$, $O=2\cdot9$, S=16; and from the ethyl compounds in Table III. the following values may also be accepted, $NO_3=14\cdot4$, $SiO_4=18\cdot4$, $CO_3=12\cdot9$, and $CN=9\cdot1$, the two latter numbers corresponding with those of carbonic anhydride and cyanogen gas in Table II. We obtain

""" —8.08 """ —8.05 """ —8.05 """ —8.72 """ —8.792 """ —7.63 """ Nitrate """ """ Silicate """ """ Carbonate """ """ —8.30 """ Cyanide """ """ —8.13 """ —8.37							
""" ————————————————————————————————————	From the	Formiate				Potassium	=8.14
""">""">""" Alcoholate """" = 8.72 """">""" Lactate """" = 7.93 """">""" Tartrate """ = 7.63 """">""" Nitrate """ = 7.71 """">""" Silicate """ = 8.30 """">""" Carbonate """ = 8.13 """">""" Sulphocyanide """ = 8.37	**	Acetate .				**	=8.08
""">""">""" Lactate """" = 7.92 """">""" Tartrate """ = 7.63 """">""" Nitrate """ = 7.71 """>""" Silicate """ = 8.30 """">""" Carbonate """ = 8.13 """">""" Sulphocyanide """ = 8.37	**	Oxalate .				,,	=8.05
""" =7.63 """ =7.71 """ =8.30 """ Carbonate """ """ Cyanide """ """ Sulphocyanide """ """ =8.37	,,	Alcoholate				**	=8.72
., Nitrate , =7·71 ,, Silicate , =8·30 ,, Carbonate , =7·93 ,, Cyanide , =8·13 ,, Sulphocyanide , , =8·37	,,	Lactate .				,,	=7.92
,, Silicate , =8·30 ,, Carbonate , =7·93 ,, Cyanide , =8·13 ,, Sulphocyanide , =8·37	23	Tartrate .				"	=7.63
,, Carbonate , =7.93 ,, Cyanide , =8.13 ,, Sulphocyanide , , =8.37	••	Nitrate .				;,	=7.71
,, Cyanide , =8·13 ,, Sulphocyanide , =8·37	,,	Silicate .				,,	=8.30
", Sulphocyanide ", $=8.37$	"	Carbonate				,,	=7.93
"	23	Cyanide .				**	=8.13
Mean 809	77	Sulphocyar	nide	э.		,,	=8.37
						Mean	. 8.09

Deductions from the chloride, bromide, and iodide are omitted from this list, because, as has been shown already, the differences between the refraction-equivalents of these halogens in dissolved salts must be somewhat greater than we find them to be in organic compounds. It is true this à priori objection does not lie against the chloride itself, but the close analogy between its properties and those of the two other halogens renders

it open to suspicion. If, indeed, we assume Cl=9.9, we obtain K=8.9, a higher number than any of the above. Considering the whole scope of the evidence, I would rather determine chlorine from potassium, than potassium from chlorine.

By the second method, assuming H in water=1.5, and in the hydracids 3.5, we obtain from a comparison of hydrate of potassium with water K=8.18, and from a comparison of the potassium salts with the hydracids K=8.03.

The numbers thus arrived at range from 7.6 to 8.7; but the determinations most to be relied on are a little above 8.0, and the whole concurrent testimony points to 8.1, as the most probable number.

Having determined 8·1 as the refraction-equivalent of potassium (the A of Table VI.), it is perfectly simple to calculate the refraction-equivalent of every other metal in that Table. It is only necessary to add to, or subtract from, 8·1 the mean of the figures in each line; but, inasmuch as some observations deserve more confidence than others, the exact mean was not always followed, but rather what was thought to be the most trustworthy number.

From this it results that

Sodium .				$=A-3\cdot3,$	that	is 4.8
Lithium				=A-4.3	,,	3.8
Cæsium.				=A + 5.6	,,	13.7
Rubidium				=A+5.9	"	14.0
Silver .				=A + 7.6	,,	15.7
Thallium				=A+13.5	"	21.6
Barium .				$=2(\mathbf{A}-0.2)$	22	15.8
Strontium				=2(A-1:3)	,,	13.6
Calcium				$=2(\mathbf{A}-2\cdot 9)$,,	10.4
Magnesium	L			=2(A-4.6)	>>	7.0
Cerium .				$=2(A-1\cdot3)$	>>	136
Didymium				=2(A-1.7)	,,	12.8
Zinc				=2(A-3.0)	**	10.2
Cadmium				=2(A-1.3)	,,	13.6
Copper .				$=2(A-2\cdot3)$	**	11.6
Iron				$=2(A-2\cdot1)$,,	12.0
Nickel .				$=2(A-2\cdot 9)$	"	10.4
Cobalt .				=2(A-2.7)	,,	10.8
Manganese				=2(A-2.0)	,,	12.2
Lead				$=2(A+4\cdot3)$	"	24.8
Mercury .				=2(A+2.0)	,,	20.2
Palladium .			٠.	$=2(A+3\cdot1)$	"	22.4
Aluminium				$=3(A-5\cdot3)$	77	8.4
Iron				=3(A-1.4)	37	20.1
Chromium .				=3(A-2.8)	,,	15.9

Assuming these to be the correct numbers, we are in a position to assign values to all the inorganic radicals of the salts comprised in Table VII. We have:—

TABLE VIII.

Radical.	From the potassium salt.	From the sodium salt.	From the mean of all salts
Cl	10.7	10-6	10.7
Br	17-0	17-1	17.0
I	27.6	27.7	27.2
NO	14-0	14-1	14-0
CN ³	9-1		
	16.85	17:3	17.0
			31.7
S, O,	31.6	32.2	317
H, SìO,	22.9	22.5	
PH, O,	19.2	******	18-4
NO,	11.2	10.7	
Cr 🐧	35.3	36.5	35.5
Cr. O	66:35	65.3	65.0
co,	12.6	12.75	
F	1.45		1
As O		21.3	
8 CN	25.4		
SO	18-9	*****	1
B, Ö,		36.3	1
	75.6		•
Mn, O,		*****	
Fe C N (Ferricy.)	77.75	*****	
" (Ferrocy.)	82.3	*****	1

This Table shows that the three halogens, chlorine, bromine, and iodine, have higher refraction-equivalents in these mineral salts than they have in their organic compounds, and that the divergence increases as we advance in the series*.

		In	orga	nie compounds.	In mineral salts.
Chlorine					10.7
Bromine				15.3	17.0
Iodine .				24.5	27.2

It also gives us additional information respecting the refraction-equivalents of some of the metals.

Iron.—This metal in combination with cyanogen in the ferrocyanide and ferricyanide of potassium has apparently a higher equivalent than in the compounds where it plays the part of a base.

Manganese.—This element exists in a highly oxidized condition in permanganate of potassium. If O be taken at 2.9, the refraction-equivalent of manganese will be 26.2.

Chromium.—This also exists in combination with oxygen in the chromates and bichromates. There it has a refraction-equivalent of about 23.

^{*} In estimating metals from their chlorides, the equivalent 9.9 has been taken where the chloride is decomposed by water, 10.7 where it is soluble without decomposition. This arbitrary distinction seems to have a foundation in fact.

In the oxychloride (Table III.) it seems to have about the same power as in the chromium salts, viz. 16.5.

Mercury.—This metal presents greater difficulties in the estimation of its refractionequivalent than any other in the list, and a comparison of its value, as deduced from all its compounds, only increases the difficulty.

From	the Chloride i	n Wate	er.		Mercur	y = 19.8
,,	,	Alcoh	ıol		**	=14.2
,,	Nitrate				,,	=20.8
>,	Cyanide				,,	=16.0
"	Crystallized C	alomel			,,	=22.0
	Mercuric Met	hide .			••	=22.7

These differences are beyond what may be due to errors of experiment.

There are some other elementary bodies the refraction-equivalents of which may be deduced from the observations recorded.

Arsenic acid and some arseniates have been examined, but the results are discordant, showing, however, always a lower equivalent than 15.

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Antimony.—From the Terchloride . . . Sb=31·8

" Pentachloride . . . "=24·5

Vanadium.—From the Oxychloride . . . V=25·3
```

Nitrogen.—From Dulong's numbers for gaseous nitrogen the refraction-equivalent is 3.30, but no other means of calculation give so low a figure. The gaseous compounds afford the following results:—

From	Cyanogen .		N=4.18
21	Nitrous Oxide		N=4.16
"	Nitric Oxide		N = 3.84
,,	Ammonia .		N = 4.10

These point clearly to 4.0 or 4.1. The hydrogen in ammonia has been taken as gaseous hydrogen, viz. 1.5. It is to be remarked that ammonium in the series of salts is 11.5; but it is impossible to calculate N from this, as the refraction-equivalent of hydrogen is uncertain. Cyanogen in its compounds is 9.1; hence the nitrogen is also 4.1 in this combination. In the nitrates and nitrites, however, it seems to have a greater influence on light.

From
$$NO_3$$
 $N=5.3$
, NO_2 $N=5.3$

Silicon.—From the tetrachloride, Si=7.5. Silicic acid, Si O_2 , in the form of quartz has the refraction-equivalent 12.4 and 12.6 for the ordinary and extraordinary rays respectively; as deduced from silicic ether it is 12.6, and from the soluble silicates 12.6. Therefore Si=6.8.

Boron.—B₂O₃, as deduced from boracic ether, is 16.45, from crystallized borax 16.85, and from borax in solution 16.7. Taking the mean of these values, B=4.0.

Zirconium.—From zircon, Zr=20.8 or 22.6, according as we reckon from the ordinary or extraordinary ray.

Fluorine.—From potassium fluoride F=1·45. The numbers given for fluor-spar and kryolite confirm this very small value, or rather indicate that this body has scarcely any influence on the rays of light.

SUMMARY.

The general results of the foregoing deductions give the following numbers as the refraction-equivalents of the elements, already determined more or less accurately.

Element.	Atomic weight.	Refraction-equivalent.	Specific refractive energy.
Aluminium	27.4	8.4	0.307
Antimony	122	24.5?	0.201?
Arsenic	75	15.4 (other values?)	0.205
Barium	137	15.8	0.115
Boron	11	4.0	0.364
Bromine	80	15.3, in dissolved salts 16.9	0.191 or 0.211
Cadmium	112	13.6	0-121
Cæsium	133	13.7 ?	0.103?
Calcium	40	10-4	0.260
Carbon	12	5.0	0.417
Cerium	92	13-6 ?	0.148?
Chlorine	35.5	9.9, in dissolved salts 10.7	0 279 or 0:301
Chromium	52.2	15-9 (in chromates 23?)	0.305 or 0.441?
Cobalt	58.8	10-8	0.184
Copper	63.4	11.6	0.183
Didymium	96	12:8?	0 133 ?
Fluorine	19	1.4?	0 073 ?
Gold	197	24-0?	0.122?
Hydrogen	1	1·3, in hydracids 3·5	1·3 or 3·5
Iodine	127	24.5, in dissolved salts 27.2	0·193 or 0·214
Iron	56	120 in ferrous, 201 in ferric salts	0°214 or 0°359
Lead	207	24.8	0.120
Lithium	7	3.8	0.543
Magnesium	24	7.0	0.292
Manganese	55	12·2 (26·2? in permanganate)	0.222 or 0.476?
Mercury	200	20.2 ?	0.1013
Nickel	58-8	10.4	0.177
Nitrogen	14	4.1, or 5.3 in higher oxides	0:293 or 0:379
Oxygen	16	2.9	0.181
Palladium	106:5	22.4?	0.210?
Phosphorus	31	18·3 (other values?)	0.590
Platinum	197.4	26.0	0.132
Potassium	39-1	8:1	0.207
Rhodium	104:4	24-27	0.232?
Rubidium	85.4	14.0	0.164
Silieon	28	7.5? (6.8 in oxygen compounds)	0.268? or 0.243
Silver	108	15.7?	0.145?
Sodium	23	4.8	0.209
strontium	87.5	13.6	0.155
Sulphur	32	16·0 (other values?)	0.500
Challium	204	21.6?	0.106?
[in	118	19.2?	0.163 7
litanium	50	25.5?	0.510?
Vanadium	51.2	25:3?	0.494?
Zine	65-2	10-2	0.156
Zirconium	89-6	21.0?	0.234?

In the above Table those equivalents are marked? where they have been deduced from only one compound, or where the different determinations are not fairly accordant.

At some future time I hope to reexamine each of the doubtful points, and to extend the observations to the whole range of the chemical elements. The question of dispersion-equivalents is also of interest: the data for an investigation of the matter are given in the Appendix, since the refractive index has been calculated for the lines D and H, as well as the line A; but I have avoided encumbering the present paper with any remarks on this subject.

The specific refractive energy of a body is in some respects worthy of more consideration than the refraction-equivalent, for it is a physical property independent of chemical theories. If these energies in the preceding Table are compared with one another several suggestive facts may be observed.

1st. Hydrogen has more than double the energy of any other element, even in the lowest number that can be assigned to it.

2nd. Phosphorus, vanadium, titanium, and sulphur have singularly high energies, and they are substances that present certain chemical analogies.

3rd. There are several pairs of analogous elements having the same, or nearly the same, energy; thus, bromine and iodine, arsenic and antimony, potassium and sodium, manganese and iron, nickel and cobalt.

4th. An element in altering its quantivalence alters its energy.

5th. If those metals that form the soluble salts of Table V. be arranged in the order of their energies, it will be seen that, with a few exceptions, they are in the inverse order of their combining proportions. This is shown in the annexed Table, where the third column gives the actual weight of the metal that combines with 35.5 of chlorine.

Element.	Specific refractive energy.	Combining proportion.	Element,	Specific refractive energy.	Combining proportion.
Hydrogen Lithium Aluminium Chromium Magnesium Calcium Zirconium Rhodium Manganese Iron Palladium Sodium Potassium Cobalt Copper	540 307 305 292 260 234 ? 232 ? 222 214 210 ? 207 -184	1 7 9-1 17-4 12 20 22-4 34-8 27-5 28 53-2 23 39 1 29-4 31-7	Nickel Rubridium Zine Strontium Cerium Silver Didymium Platinum Gold Cadmium Lead Barium Thallium Cosdum Thallium Cosdum Mereoury	164 156 155 148? 145? 133? 132? 122? 121 120 115 106?	29·4 85·4 32·6 43·8 46 108 47·5 49·3 65·7 56 103·5 68·5 204 133 100

This has not the regularity of a physical law, but it clearly points to some connexion between the power of a metallic body to saturate the affinities of other elements, and its power to retard the rays of light.

APPENDIX.

Received June 26, 1869.

I. Refractive Indices.

Substance.	Formula.	Specific gravity.	Tempe- rature Centi- grade.	μ Δ.	μD.	μH.	Refraction- equivalent.
Bromine	Br	3.085	12	1.6260			16.23
Water			15	1.32924	1.33328	1.34393	5.92632
Rock-salt			l l	1.5369	1.5443	1.5685	15.02
Carbon Tetrachloride	CC1	1.5888		1.4560			44.2
Tin ,,			20	1.5035	1.5124	1.5429	58.76
Titanium	Ti Cl	1.727	l l	1.5856	1.6039		65.08
Antimony Pentachloride	Sb Cl	2.322	17.5	1.5739	1.5871		74-03
Vanadium Oxychloride	VO Ci	1.841	12	1.6143	1.6416		57.96
Chromium	Cr O. Cl	1.908	23	1.5177	1.5242		42.08
Sulphuric Acid	H, SO,	1.882	11.5	1.4205	1.4251	1.4366	21.90
Nitric Acid	HNO	1.549	13	1.4047	1.4115		16.46
Alcohel	C, H, Ö	0.797	12	1.3615	1.3655	1.3769	20-857
Methylated Acetone	C. H. O	0.811	13	1.3817	1.3860	1.3991	33.89
Butyrone		0.825	13	1.4073	1.4116	1.4262	56-29
Ethylic Phosphite	(C, H,), PO,	1-074	20	1.3996	1.4032	1.4160	61.76
Mercuric Methyl	Hg (CH,)	2.966	30	1.5229	1.5336	1.5683	40.54

II. Aqueous Solutions.

77 79 77 79 79 79 79 79	"," "," "," "," "," "," "," "," "," ","	KBr KI KNO	. 22 24 . 26 . 28 . 13 . 30 . 15 . 13	1·119 1·108 1·100 1·093 1·087 1·167 1·082 1·148 1·292	15·5 15·5 15·5 16·5 13 15 13 12·5	1·3535 1·3511 1·3493 1·3482 1·3478 1·3625 1·3462 1·3591 1·3747	1.3581 1.3560 1.3542 1.3527 1.3521 1.3670 1.3506 1.3637	1·3704 1·3682 1·3662 1·3646 1·3638 1·3800 1·3625 1·3768	18:80 18:74 18:63 18:80 19:12 18:84 18:89
79 77 77 79 79 79 79 79	"," "," "," Bromide Iodide	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	. 24 . 26 . 28 . 13 . 30 . 15 . 13	1·100 1·093 1·087 1·167 1·082 1·148 1·292	15.5 15.5 16.5 13 15	1·3493 1·3482 1·3478 1·3625 1·3462 1·3591	1 3542 1 3527 1 3521 1 3670 1 3506 1 3637	1.3662 1.3646 1.3638 1.3800 1.3625	18-63 18-80 19-12 18-84
79 77 77 79 79 79 79 79	"," "," "," Bromide Iodide	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	24 26 28 13 30 15 13	1·093 1·087 1·167 1·082 1·148 1·292	15.5 16.5 13 15 13	1·3482 1·3478 1·3625 1·3462 1·3591	1.3527 1.3521 1.3670 1.3506 1.3637	1.3646 1.3638 1.3800 1.3625	18·80 19·12 18·84
77 77 79 79 79 79 79	Bromide	K Br K I K N O	28 13 30 15 13	1-087 1-167 1-082 1-148 1-292	16·5 13 15 13	1:3478 1:3625 1:3462 1:3591	1·3521 1·3670 1·3506 1·3637	1.3638 1.3800 1.3625	19·12 18·84
77 **2 **2 **2 **3 **3 **3 **3	Bromide	KBr KI	13 30 15 13	1·167 1·082 1·148 1·292	13 15 13	1·3625 1·3462 1·3591	1:3670 1:3506 1:3637	1.3800 1.3625	18.84
77 77 77 77	Bromide	KBr KI KNO	. 30 . 15 . 13 . 13	1.082 1.148 1.292	15 13	1·3462 1·3591	1·3506 1·3637	1.3625	
77 72 72 72	Bromide	KBr KI KNO.	15 13 13	1.148	13	1.3591	1.3637		18.89
"	Bromide	KBr KI KNO.	. 13	1.292					
"	Iodide Nitrate	KI	. 13		12.5	1.3747			18.84
"	Nitrate	KNO					1.3801	1.3953	25.09
	Nitrate	KNO3	. 25	1.421	13.5	1.4006	1.4073	1.4287	35.72
	Nitrita	1 "		1.125	13.5	1.3476	1.3519	1.3647	22.11
.,	Nitrite	,	. 24.77	1.125	14.5	1.3476	1.3522	1.3647	22.10
**		KNO2	. 17	1.136	24.5	1.3487	1.3528	*****	19.31
	Formiate	KCHO	. 9.37	1.220	17	1.3647	1.3692	1.3818	20.03
**	,,	l ,,	. 11.71	1.179	9	1.3591	1.3636	1.3758	20.46
**	Acetate	K C, H, O,	. 10	1.189	14	1.3721	1.3765	1.3891	27.78
**	Lactate	K, C, H, O,	. 11'04	1.316	8.5	1.4103	1.4145	1.4297	76:37
,,	.,		. 36.55	1.162	10.5	1.3725	1.3771	1.3897	76.14
"	Cyanide	KCN"	6.13	1.195	13.5	1.3648	1.3694	1.3822	17.23
**	Sulphocyanide	KCNS	. 9	1.208	14.5	1.4017	1.4105	1.4297	33-47
,	Chromate	K, Cr O,	. 16	1.231	14.5	1.3853	1.3924		51.50
**	Hvdrate	KHO	5.47	1.368	11.5	1.3987	1.4040	1.4187	12.61
	Fluoride	KF	. 20	1.111	18	1.3403	1.3448	1.3555	9.55
"	Sulphate	K.SO	. 107-5	1.069	11.5	1.3397	1.3441	1.3551	33.11
	Bisulphate	K,SO, KHSO,	. 38.5	1.128	13	1.3472	1.3514	1.3623	27.00
.,	Tartrate	K, C, H, O,	.) 19	1.300	17.5	1.3900	1.3947	1.4074	57.87
••	Oxalate	K C O.	54.28	1.112	10.5	1.3497	1.3541	1.3658	37.71
,,	Ferrocyanide	K C O	45.86	1.125	13	1.3667	1.3719	1.3866?	114-24
"				1.113	14.5	1.3635	1.3682	1.3819	115.20
,	Ferricyanide	K ₃ C ₆ N ₆ Fe	. 77	1.109	25.5	1.3606	1.3657		101-44
,	,,		68.47	1.110	13	1.3616	1.3669		102.73
,			53.99	1.149		1.3728	1.3783		101.99
, ,,	Permanganate	K Mn O	162	1.027	11	1.3360			45.9
',	Hyposulphite	K. S. O.	. 13.07	1.397		1.4118	1.4174	1.4335	47.88
*,	Silicate	K, S, O, KH ₃ Si O ₄ - 0.07 K ₂ O	8-18	1.334	17	1.3795	1.3842	1.3962	29.68
: ;,	Carbonate	K, CO,	26	1.222	14.5	1.3681	1.3731	1.3855	28.54
"	.,	,,	15.66	1.327	18	1.3847	1.3894	1.4018	28.97
"	.,	,,		1.203	20	1.3649	1.3695	1.3811	28.79

II. Aqueous Solutions (continued).

Substance.	Formula.	Equiva- lents of water.	Specific gravity.	Tempe- rature Centi- grade.	μΔ.	μD.	μΗ.	Refrac- tion- equiva- lent.
Potassium Hypophosphite	крн. О	11	1-222	12.5	1.3733	1 3778	1.3908	27.09
,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	K ₂ SO ₃ +0·488SO ₂ +0·29SO ₃ K ₂ Cr ₂ O ₇	8.65	1.243	22	1·3768 1·3771	1.3821	1-3946	27·48 42·28
" Sulphite	K, SO, +0.488 SO,	21.62 24.20	1·280 1·296	22 22	1.3831	1 3878	1.4013	40-18
" Richmomata	K Cr O	120-93	1.085	21.5	1.3511	1.3564		82.5
" Dieniomate	201207	215	1.051	15.5	1.3424	1.3472		82.6
Sodium Chloride	Na Cl	10/4	1.183	13.5	1 3710	1.8763	1.3901	15.33
, ,, ,,	"	12 12	1·168 1·166	9·5 14	1 3683 1 3680	1·3736 1·3734	1.3864	15·45 15·51
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	,,	12	1.162	12.5	1.3667	1.3717	1-3849	15.51
" "		14	1.148	9.5	1.3632	1.3681	1.3814	15.26
); ii		16	1.132	9	1.3598	1 3649	1.3771	15.32
,, ,,		18	1·118 1·109	15.5	1.3570	1·3621 1·3596	1·3748 1·3712	15.47
,, ,,	,,	20 22	1.099	9 15	1·3549 1·3529	1.3576	1.3701	15·43 15·55
,, ,,	**	24	1-091	14.5	1.3509	1.3555	1.3678	15.51
,, ,,	19	26	1-085	14.5	1.3492	1.3540	1.3661	15.37
yy yy	, ,	34	1.066	15	1.3446	1:3491	1.3610	15.30
Bromide	Na Br	13 15·1	1.294	11.5 11.5	1.3801 1.3968	1.3855	1.4013	21·89 32·41
" Iodide	Na I		1.221	11.5	1.3699	1.3752	1.3917	32.63
" Nitrate	Na N O ₃ Na N O ₂ Na C ₂ H ₃ O ₂	13	1.202	12	1.3615	1.3664	1.3803	18-89
" Nitrite	Na N O	6.49	1-284	14.5	1.3731	1.3782	1.3931	15.50
" Acetate	Na C ₂ 'H ₃ O ₂	13	1.141	14	1.3668	1.3712	1.3837	24.55
		12 10:21	1-151	11.5 11.5	1.3678 1.3759	1·3724 1·3812	1.3946	24·13 9·20
" Hydrate	Na HO	16	1.218	12	1.3889	1.3956	1 0010	46.08
" Sulphate	Na, Cr O, Na, S O,	45	1.132	23	1.3491	1.3535	1.3645	26.92
,, ,,	,,	63	1.100	18.5	1.3451	1.3494	1.3600	26.91
" Arsenite	Na As O ₂ -0.2 Na ₂ O	5.9	1-727 1-195	15	1·4564 1·3619	1·4638 1·3662	1.4858	23·65 28 77
" Arseniate	Na ₂ H As O ₄ 0 64 Na ₂ O	32·68 30	1.204	16	1.3750	1.3797	1.3922	50 85
Curboneta	Na CO	23.34	1.216	24	1.3709	1.3753	1.3876	22.07
,, Carbonate	Na As O ₂ - 0·2 Na ₂ O	26.77	1.192	14.5	1.3676	1.3722	1.3847	22.63
" Biborate Hyposulphite Bichromate Silicate Lactate Lithium Chloride	Na B, O,	467	1.020	18	1.3334	1.3377	1.3487	45.9
" Hyposulphite	Na ₂ S, O ₃	25 100	1.235	14	1.3858	1.3906 1.3623	1.4051	41.80 74.87
, Bichromate	Na U.S. O	7.96	1.384	16.5	1.3943	1 3990	1.4119	27.28
Lactate	Na. C. H., O.	40-11	1.137	20	1.3693	1.3740	1.3860	69.45
Lithium Chloride	LiCl	13	1 090	9	1.3623	1.3670	1.3801	14.86
" Bromide	Li Br	13	1.242	12.5	1.3776	1.3826	1.3893	20.56
" Iodide	Lil	13 6	1·365 1·189	14	1.4014	1.4085	1.4306	31·49 19·28
Acetate	Lic H O	10	1.110	14.5	1.3723	1.3774	1.3887	23.25
Chromate	Li Cr O	22	1.225	14.5	1.4051	1.4142		43.62
" Bichromate	Li ₂ Cr ₂ O ₇	72	1 097	145	1.3589	1.3651		72.60
, Bromide , lodide , Nitrate , Acetate , Chromate , Bichromate , Sulphate Creaum Chloride	Li,80,	26	1·173 1·042	13	1.3619	1 3662 1 3374	1 3771 1 3486	24.26
Caesium Chloride Rubidium , Sulphate Silver Nitrate	Rb Cl	169 23.77	1.168	18	1.3515	1.3560	1.3682	24·4 24·28
" Sulphate	Rb. SO. +1.04 H. SO	68.58	1-177	17.5	1.3495	1.3536	1.3646	69:30
Silver Nitrate	Ag NO ₃	13	1.512	13.5	1.3920	1.3974	1.4138	27.68
,, ,,	,	8.63	1·721 1·718	18	1·4150 1·4152	1.4212 1.4212	1.4398	27.28
Cranida	Ag CN+KCN	8·71 60·22	1.110	17 20	1.3455	1.3502	1.3622	27·35 42·75
, Cyanice	Ag. S. O. +2 Na Cl.		!	1			1	
" Hyposulphite	2.6 Na S O	149-35	1.212	19.5	1.3732	1 3784	1.3933	205.8
		252.6	1 049	13	1.3347	1.3390	1.3502	37.7
,, ,,	,,	243·14 231·18	1-050 1 052	18 20	1·3342 1·3348	1·3385 1·2392	1·3493 1·3503	36·0 37·8
,, Formiate	тьсно	39.85	1.283	22	1.3572	1.3624	1.3752	32.88
, Acetate	Th C. H. O.	73.24	1.154	10	1.3463	1.3508	1.3634	40.45
Ammonium Chloride	N H, Cl	13	1.054	14.5	1.3647	1.3695	1.3828	22.44
		13	1·055 1·194	12.5	1.3645	1.3694	1.3825	22.23
" Bromide	N H, Br N H, I	13 13	1.194	9 21·5	1·3797 1·4012	1·3855 1·4081	1·4010 1·4292	28·53 38·90
" Nitrate	NH.NO.	13	1.110	12	1.3623	1.3672	1.3807	25.44
" Hydrate	NH4NO, NH4HO	12.5	0.971	18	1.3324	1 3366	1.3475	15.17
" "	,,	6	0.952	14	1.3409	1.3452	1.3570	15.65
,, ,,	,	1.23	0.894	15	1.3475	1.3519	1.3647	15.44

II. Aqueous Solutions (continued).

	Substance		To the second se	Formula.	Equiva- lents of water.	Specific gravity.	Temperature Centigrade.	μΔ.	μD.	μĦ.	Refrac- tion- equiva- lent.
Ammonium	m Acetat	e	NH, C	Cr O ₄	7	1-079	14.5	1.3883	1-3929	1-4070	31-57
13	Chron	nate	(N H.)	Cr O,	60	1.076	14.5	1.3613	1.3672		58-12
,,	Bichr	mate	(NH ₄)	Cr ₂ O ₇	65-38	1.107	15	1.3676	1.3740	7 4007	87-06
22	Sulph	ate	(NH1)	,80,	26	1.129	11.5	1.3645	1.3687	1.3801	39.63
v 17	23	*******	, ,,	***************************************	26-03 30	1-1129	12.5	1.3637 1.3600	1 3682	1.3795	39-19
, ,	**		"			1.082	12.5	1.3510	1.3555	1.3668	38-81
,,	Oxalat	e	(NH.)	C ₂ O ₁	75-22	1 019	26.5	1 3364	1.3408	1.3517	42.22
Hydrochlo	ric Acid		H C1	2 - 4	5	1.143	15	1-3991	1-4053	1.4215	14:53
,,	n	**********			5	1-144	11.5	1.3954	1.4010	1-4168	14:08
*1	29		, ,,		6	1-127	14	1.3924	1.3983	1.4136	14.75
"	"	•••••	,,		4.16	1.163	22	1.4031	1.4096	1.4268	13-96
**	39	**********	79 ***	······	4·19 4·5	1·165 1·156	17·5 17	1.4035	1.4094	1-4270	13-93
Hydrobron	nie "	•••••••	TT TO		13	1.217	11.5	1.3774	1 3830	1.3991	20.65
Hydriodic	1110 ,,		HI	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	13	1:340	23	1.3996	1.4067	1 0001	31-17
Nitrie	33		HNO.		0.28	1.521	13	1.4076	1-4147		16.60
"	19		• "		0.9	1.460	12	1.4003	1.4067	1.4252	16.33
19	17		,,	O ₂	2.69	1.376	13	1.3975	1.4040	1.4220	16.59
Formic	**		HCH	O ₂	3-47	1.103	21.5	1 3499	1.3542	1.3662	13.85
79	27	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	"		26.22	1.022	22	1.3342	1.3385	1.3495	14.00
. "	79	••••••	c''	, O ₂	26.68	1.023	19	1.3338	1.3381	1.3491	13.57
Acetic	"	************	H C'H	3 O ₂	7·44 0·42	1.042	19·5 12	1 3513	1·3557 1·4340	1:3671	21·29 22·09
Sulphuric	72		H2 S U		1	1.843 1.767	13	1-4332	1.4384	1.4466	22.50
, ,,	**		,,		1	1.781	14.5	1.4344	1-4396	1.4521	22.37
77	"		"		2	1.659	9	1.4230	1-4285	1.4410	22.32
"	"				3	1.557	14	1.4117	1.4150	1.4301	22.41
,,	14				5	1.430	9	1.3949	1.4003	1.4127	22.28
27	,		17		11	1.256	9	1.3714	1.3765	1.3881	22 33
77	"		**		25	1.118	9	1.8499	1.3544	1.3657	23 33
- "	,,		_ "		25	1.127	13	1.3514	1.3559	1.3672	22.70
Tartaric	33		H ₂ C ₄ E	[, O _a	12.86	1.210	23	1.3851	1.3899	1.4022	45.17
Racemic	29		**	*****************	12-86 40	1-213 1-077	19·5 24·5	1.3869 1.3498	1.3913 1.3544	1 4039 1 3656	45·42 45·51
Oralie	"		H C C	**************	86-94	1.034	18	1 3368	1.3413	1.3520	23.44
Citric	,,		H. C. F	0.	22	1.161	23	1.3777	1.3820	1.3944	60.89
Cacodylic	**		As C. H	. O	55.39	1.059	14.5	1.3438		1.3596	40.09
Barium Ch	loride .		BaCl,		60	1.166	13	1.3557	1.3601	1.3722	37 32
" Br	omide.		Ba Br.	; O,	26	1.503	8.5	1.4024	1.4080	1.4242	50.72
" Io	dide	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Ba I		90	1.321	22	1.3784	1.3842	1.4008	69.72
" Ni	trate	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Ba (N C)3),	200	1.055	22	1.3356		1.3508	43:26
,, Fo	rmiate.	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Ba (CH	0),	41·34 26	1.225	24·5 14·5	1 3593	1:3637	1.3759	39-82 56-44
" Ac	etate	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Da (C. I	3), (C), (J), (26 84·5	1:314	8	1·3826 1·3592	1.3635	1.3751	78.98
Stroutium	Chloride		Sr Cl	10 06	22.90	1.299	16	1.3883	1.3931	1.4074	34 88
			.,		28	1-255	16	1.3801	1.3847	1.3987	34.78
"	"		11		32	1.224	10.5	1:3731	1.3782	1.3912	34.28
29	**				36	1.199	16	1.3698	1.3742	1.3869	35.42
79	**				40	1.180	16	1.3660	1 3703	1.3829	35 46
22	,,		,, .		44	1.167	11.5	1.3628	1.3670	1.3797	34 80
,,	"		a."n.	••••••••••	48 26	1-152	16	1.3606	1.3647	1.3772	35.70
,, <u>1</u>	oromide Situato		or Br.		60	1·399 1·147	9 12	1·3941 1·3527	1·3997 1·3574	1:4158 1:3698	47.52 41.68
,, <u>1</u>	Tormiete		Sr(AU	3/4	78-96	1 089	21.5	1.3454	1.3497	1.3606	39.04
" T	actate		Sr C H	Õ'3	320-66	1-028	8	1.3370	1.3410	1.3524	78.2
Calcium C	hloride.		Ca Cl.	10 0 0	26	1.172	13.5	1.3774	1:3824	1.3960	32.28
" В	romide.		Ca Br.	, O ₁₀ O ₃	26	1.306	25	1.3874	1.3926	1.4087	44.32
" Ic	odide		Ca I, 2.		52	1.241	23	1.3747	1.3805	1.3970	64.66
" N	itrate .		Ca (N C	3)2	26	1.226	12	1.3740	1.3788	1.3931	38.66
,, F	ormiate		Ca (CH	$(\sigma_i)_i$	52.44	1.090	215	1.3499	1.3543	1.3658	33.94
" A	cetate .	1. 16	Ca (C ₂]	3) ₂ , O), I ₂ O ₂) ₂	32	1.131	12	1.3689	1.3736	1.3860	49.80
,, H	ypopho	spnne	Ca(PH	. ₂ U ₂) ₂	64 31	1·089 1·210	12 5 12	1·3510 1·3855	1·3549 1·3908	1:3666 1:4047	46.88 42.52
Mamarin	n Chleri	do	Marca	,	26	1.156	14.5	1.3757	1.3805	1.3943	28.88
magnesiun	Nibret		Ma(N)	•	26	1.194	85	1.3683	1.3736	1.3872	35.92
**	Formi	ate	We (C)),) Нб,), Н,б,),	63.10	1.062	24.5	1.3439	1.3482	1.3595	30.80
**	Acetat	e	MolC	H.ŐĴ	20	1.170	13.5	1.3835	1.3881	1.4010	46.02
**	Sulpha	ite	MgSO	3-2/9	31.18	1-187	15.5	1.3643	1.3681	1.3805	24.18
-	P					1					

II. Aqueous Solutions (continued).

Substance.	Formula.	Equiva- lents of water.	Specific gravity.	Tempe- rature Centi- grade.	μ А .	μD.	μ Η.	Refrac- tion- equiva- lent.
Magnesium Hyposulphite	Mg S, O,	26	1.225	13	1.3906	1.3958	1.4099	38.52
Magnesium Hyposinphile Cerium Chloride Didymium , Zinc Chloride	Ce Cl.	75.68	1.110	12.5	1.3519	1.3568	1.3686	35.08
Didymium "	Di Cl.	126-23	1-061	15	1.3407	1.3450 1.4331	1.3566	34.18
Zine Chloride	Zn Cl.	8-84	1.519	12	1-4271	1.4204	1.4365	30·58 30·81
17 79 #111111111111111111111111111111111	77	10-68 13-88	1·447 1·360	9 14·5	1.3983	1.4038	1.4191	30.74
n n	" +0·054 Zn O Zu Br ₂ . Zn I, Zn (NO ₂), Zn (CH O ₂),	7.96	1.563	12	1.4338	1.4402	1.4578	31.51
" Promide	7. P.	26	1.363	9	1.3895	1.3954	1.4113	43.96
, Todide	Zn I	21-44	1.564	20	1.4276	1.4352		65.67
" Nitrate	Zn (NO.)	26	1.297	12.5	1.3803	1.3855	1.4003	38.52
. Formiste	Zn (CHO,),	152.28	1.037	22	1.3357	1.3401	1.3510	34.8
,, ,, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	,,	193-32	1.032	22	1.3352	1.3395	1.3506	35.1
" Acetate	Zn (C ₂ H ₃ O ₃) ₂	34	1.163	13	1.3662	1.3708	1-3835	48-80 53-4
" Cyanide	Zn (CN) ₂ +1·58 K CN	141·72 104	1·044 1·082	23·5 12·5	1 3366 1 3426	1·3498 1·3474	1·3512 1·3581	27.61
" Sulphate	Zn S O ₄	26	1.304	12	1.3796	1.3849	1.3991	35-32
Cadmium Chioride	CI D.	26	1.438	24	1.3910	1.3968	1.4133	47-88
, Dromue	CAONO)	26	1.369	12.5	1.3801	1.3853	1-3999	41-38
", Formiate ", Acctate ", Cyanide. ", Sulphate Cadmium Chloride ", Bromide ", Nitrate ", Sulphate Copper Chloride	Cd S O	28.56	1.346	25.5	1.3721	1.3767	1.3891	30.34
Copper Chloride	Cu Cl.	12.466	1.432	21		1.4354		D 34-30
,, ,,	,, *	20	1.290	23		1.4012		D 33.78
		40	1.155	23		1.3698	1.050	D 33.82
	,,	60	1.105	23		1.3587	1.3704	D 34.32
" Nitrate	Cu (N O ₃) ₂	17-96	1.392	17	1.0554	1.4044	1.4211	D 40-64
, Sulphate	Cu S O ₄	59.78	1.149	13 24	1·3554 1·3767	1 3600 1 3815	1·3713 1·3949	27·80 32·86
Ferrous Chloride	Fo Cl ₂	28-58 36-58	1·195 1·249	25.5	1.3758	1.3812	1.3959	46.26
" Nitrate Sulphate Ferrous Chloride Bromide Sulphate	Febr.	37	1.212	21.5	1.3672	1.3712	1.3837	28-79
" supiate	Perso1	40.8	1.186	20.5	1.3630	1.3671	1.3792	29-39
Nickel Chloride	N; C1 ±0:09 H C3	23.22	1.273	24		1.3987		D 33-26
Nitrate	Ni (N O.)	26	1.298	15.5		1.3890		D 39-14
Nickel Chloride. Nitrate Sulphate Cobalt Chloride Nitrate , Nitrate , Acetate	Ni SO,	30	1.264	13.5	1.3747	1.3796		28-16
Cobalt Chloride	Co Cl.,	24	1.254	15	1 3889	1.3945	1-4086	32.02
" Nitrate	Co (NO ₂),	30	1.259	15.5	1.3767	1.5818	1.3957	38-48
" Acetate	$Co(C_2H_3O_2)_2$	44	1.124	15	1.3607	1.3659	1.3772	50-18
", Sulphate Manganese Chloride	~ ~ ~ ·	38.42	1.133	20 15·5	1·3623 1·3704	1.3666 1.3748	1.3790	49-94 29-01
Vancous Chloride	Co SU,	32 26	1·238 1·194	13.5	1.3774	1.3824	1.3964	33.58
Browide	Mn Be	26	1.323	12.5	1.3899	1.3954	1-4117	47.24
. Todide	Mn T.	159-14	1.090	20	1.3463	1.3510	1 3642	65-14
Nitrate	Mn (NO.)	26	1.251	12.5	1.3757	1.3807	1.3952	40.22
, Acetate	Mn(C, H, O),	32	1.153	13	1.3710	1.3763	1.3893	51.34
,, Hypophosphite	Mn (PH, O.)	54	1.104	13	1.3512	1.3568	1.3674	48-10
", Sulphate	Mn SO4	23.68	1.297	21.5	1.3784	1.3828	1.3949	28.07
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	,,	26	1.277	15.5	1.3748	1.3794	1.3915	27.60
Lactate	Mn C ₅ H ₄₀ O ₆	124-2	1.054	.8	1.3459	1 3502	1.3618	73.8
Anatota	Ph(C H C)	50 64	1·297 1·192	11 15	1·3676 1·3576	1·3731 1·3625	1·3876 1·3755	53·56 64·52
" Lactate Lead Nitrate	H. Cl	241.4	1.049	23	1.3342	1.3385	1.3492	39.8
Date Chiorne	14g C12	274.52	1.044	14.5	1.3347	1.3389	1.3499	42.6
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	,,	279.04	1.043	18	1.3341	1.3383	1.3492	40-54
1) 11	+0.96 Na Cl	25.88	1:491	11.5	1.3924	1 3987	1.4170	55.34
,	,, +2·15 Na Cl.	57.64	1.285	13	1.3704	1.3765	1.3912	80-14
" " {	0.16 Na S O 1	37 04					1	1
,, Nitrate	", +0.96 Na Cl ", +2.15 Na Cl. 0.16 Na, S O, Hg (N O ₃) ₂ +1.14 Ĥ N O ₃	25.06	1.556	12	1.3972	1 4033	1-4207	67.60
" Cyanide	Hg(CN)2	146	1.071	25.5	1.3342	1.3385	1.3495	33-60
Palladium Chloride	Date 11.10 Tes	158-88 28-10	1 067 1 267	18 i	1-3349 1-3962	1.3390	1.3703	34·74 60·66
Aluminium Chlorida	141 C1 + 1418 H C1	41.82	1.165	9	1.3771	1 3820	1.3958	45.23
Splabate	Al (SO)	104	1.165	25	1.3584	1.3627	1.3739	67.7
Ferric Chloride	Fe Cl	13	1-177	22	1.3827	1.3888	10700	52.16
,, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	3	22.44	1.273	24.5	1.4141	1.4221		51.27
" Nitrate	Fe(NO ₂), +2.5 HNO	59-5	1.212	24.5	1.3760	1 3814		103.45
", Sulphate	Fe ₂ (SO ₄), +1.9 H, SO,	141.6	1.168	24	1.3624	1.3673	1.3814?	133.5
Chromium Chloride	Cr Cl, + 0 56 Cr, O,	67.64	1.165	13	1.3769	1 3826?	• • • • • • •	71.90
Sulphate	Cr2 (SO1),-141 H2 SO1	70.58	1.231	18	1.3790			50 81
", Nitrate ", Sulphate Chromium Chloride ", Sulphate Gold Chloride Rhodium	Au Cl +0-868 H Cl	24.33	1.483	11.5	1-4079	1.4160		68-45
Rhodium ,,	Rh Cl ₃ +3Na Cl. Pt Cl ₄ +0.94 H Cl	91.97	1.172	11.5	1.3717	1.3771	•• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	102.48
Platinum "	Pt CL +0.94 H Cl	20.30	1.665	11	1.4610	1.4709	• • • • • •	84-34

IIL Alcoholic Schutions.

Substance.	Formula.	Equiva- lents of alsohol.	Specific gravity.	Tempe- rature Centi- grade.	µ\$.	Ф.	pH.	Refrac- tion- equiva- lent.
Sedium Alcoholate Copper Chloride Colott Meroury	KI KSCN No.C.H.O CuCl. CuCl. HgCl.	917-8 46-9 5-58 11-90 24-34 35-04 16-9 20-94	0-915 0-911 0-799 0-913 0-875 0-961 0-673 0-851 1-043 0-995	19-5 30-5 19-5 19-5 19-5 17-19-5 19-5 19-5	1-8671 1-3652 1-3501 1-3649 1-3807 1-3769 1-3733 1-3628 1-3795 1-3576	1:3916 1:3896 1:3632 1:3630 1:3856 1:4026 1:3814 1:3872 1:3830 1:3616	1-4946 1-4026 1-3743 1-3812 1-3985 1-3937 1-4006 1-2970 1-3726	20 22 26 48 25 1 24 51 34 51 34 72 31 72 33 06 25 10 36 68 8 97

I am indebted to friends for the use of some of the above compounds. Professor Frankland kindly lent me the mercuric methide and the ketones; Professor Williamson the titanium tetrachloride, chromium oxychloride, and ethylic phosphite; Professor Roscoe the vanadium oxychloride; and Mr. Perkin the cacodylic acid.

Postscript, 21st March, 1870.

Since writing the statement about the aromatic compounds under the head of carbon, I have satisfied myself that their exceptionally high refractive power cannot be explained by the higher equivalent of hydrogen.

More recent experiments have confirmed the numbers provisionally assigned to antimony and gold, and led to some augmentation in those for didymium and zirconium.

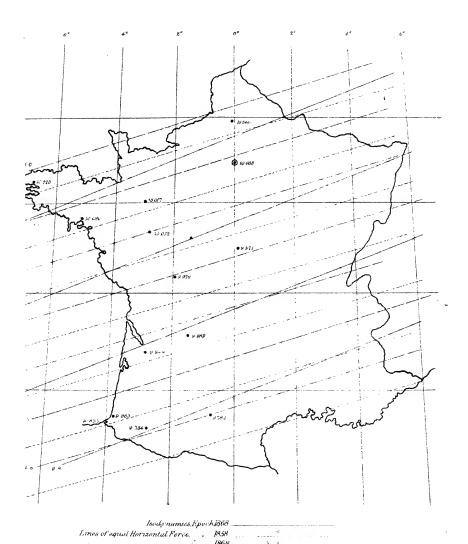


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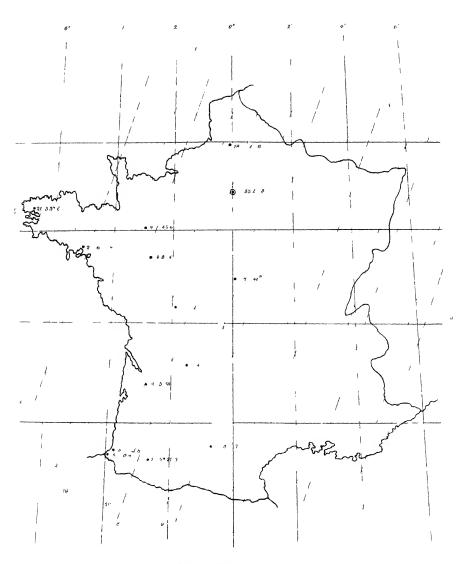
 $R,\, S_{a^{+}} + ^{-\pi\pi\hat{p}}$

Wesley, lak

Magnetic Intensity



Magnetic Declination



Isogonics Epoch 1858 ______

III. Magnetic Survey of the West of France, 1868. By the Rev. Stephen J. Perry, S.J., F.R.A.S., F.M.S., &c. Communicated by the President.

Received June 3,-Read June 17, 1869.

THE Magnetic Survey of the West of France, of which the following is a report, was undertaken by the Rev. W. SIDGREAVES and myself at the request of the authorities of Stonyhurst College, who generously undertook to defray all the expenses of the expedition. A similar survey of the East of France will be made during the coming autumn, so as to complete the series of observations of the magnetic elements for the whole of France.

The instruments employed were those which have been in constant use at Stonyhurst Observatory for the determination of the monthly absolute values of the Dip, Declination, and Intensity. They consisted of a dip-circle by Barrow, No. 32, a unifilar by Jones, and Frodsham's marine chronometer, No. 3148. A beautiful transit-theodolite and an aneroid barometer were kindly placed at our disposal by the late Mr. Cooke.

The dip-circle was provided with three needles of the ordinary construction, the length of each being 3.54 inches, and the maximum breadth of Nos. 1 & 2 0.21 inch, whilst that of No. 3 was 0.32 inch. For the unifilar there were five magnets—two for declination observations, a third, No. 7, for vibrating and deflecting, and the remaining two, Nos. 9 & 10, for suspension in the deflection experiments. The same declination magnet was used throughout the whole series of observations, and the only deflected magnet employed was No. 9.

The reduced observations are given at considerable length in the following Tables, in order that the accuracy of the conclusions may be more reliable, and the results be more easily compared with those of past and future observers.

The moment of inertia of the deflecting magnet, No. 7, with its stirrup, for different degrees of temperature, and the coefficients in the corrections required for the effects of temperature and of terrestrial magnetic induction on the magnetic moment of the magnet, were determined at the Kew Observatory by the late Mr. Welsh.

The moment of inertia of the magnet, with its stirrup, using the grain and foot as the units of mass and of linear measure, is 5.27303. Its rate of increase for increase of temperature is 0.00073 for every 10° of FAHR.

The weight of the magnet, with its stirrup, is approximately 825 grains, and the length of the magnet is nearly 3.94 inches. The moment of inertia was determined, independently of the weight and dimensions, by the method of vibration, with and without a known increase of the moment of inertia.

MDCCCLXX.

The observations will, for clearness' sake, be arranged under the successive heads of Dip, Intensity, and Declination.

The Magnetic Dip.

The method of observing differed in nothing from that usually employed. The magnetic prime vertical was first found by four readings of the needle when vertical, and the circle then set so that the needle might oscillate in the magnetic meridian. Each end of the needle was read with the face of the circle first East and then West; next, the axis of the needle was changed on the agate planes, and the same observations again taken; and lastly, the whole was repeated after reversing the poles of the needle. Each pair of readings was repeated after lifting the axis of the needle on its Ys, and if a difference of 2' was found, fresh sets were observed.

The results are contained in the following Table (I.).

Station.	Date.	G.M.T.		mber			Dip.	•	Mean.	Place of observation,
			1.	2.	3.	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.		
Paris	1868. Aug. 12	0 70	36		34	65 5ú·2		63 55·2	63 52·7	Garden of Coll. Vaugirard.
Laval	" 14 " 15	5 45 P.M. 10 28 A.M. 5 44 P.M.	32	32	32	65 48 3	65 50-3	65 43-9	65 49-5	Maison St. Michel.
Brest	" 18	3 41 P.M.	36	34	36	66 2 9·5	66 23 9	66 30-1	66 27.8	3 Rue d'Aiguillon.
Vannes	,, 22	2 59 P.M. 3 24 P.M. 10 49 A.M.	31	44	44	65 51-4	65 45:3	65 39 5	65 48.4	Garden of College.
Angers	" 24 " 25	6 9 P.M. 4 9 P.M. 7 51 A.M.	34	44	 32	65 12-0	65 8.7	65 8.5	65 9.7	8 Rue du Faubourg St. Michel.
Poitiers	., 26	$\left\{\begin{array}{cc} 3 & 8 \\ 4 & 9 \end{array}\right\}$	34 42		34	64 33·9 64 32·9	ĺ	64 26-5	64 29.4	Meadow of the College.
Bordeaux		\ \ \ \ 9 \ 3 \ \ \ 10 \ 3 \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	34	32		63 25-6	63 22.0	63 22-6	63 24-2	Grounds of College.
Abbadia	Sept. 1	9 8 3 18	32 44 34			63 25-6 62 30 9 62 32-7	1		<i>j</i>	Magnetic Observatory.
Bayonne	., 5	$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} 5 \ 30 \text{ r.m.} \\ 4 \ 20 \end{array} \right\}$	32		30	62 30-2	;	62 32.5	62 31-4	Lamont's Station.
Pau	7	5 28 r.m. 3 25	44		:	62 3.5	62 1.4	61 53-4	61 59-4	
Toulouse	,, 9 ., 10	f 0 12)	34	40		62 4.1		62 1-2	62 22	Grounds of College.
Pérgueux	12	C 11 00 5	36		40	63 27.8		63 22-1	63 25.0	Garden of the Grand Séminaire.
Bourges	., 14	11 3 2 58 9 28	32		42	64 34-6	!	64 32-7	64 33.7	Rue neuve St. Laurent.
Paris	1.7	10 38 11 43				!	65 56 9	65 57:0	65 54.8	Garden of Coll. Vaugirard.
Amiens	"	9 3 10 35 4 38	38			65 50-1 66 41-3		66 36-5	66 41.3	Garden of St. Acheul.

In the above Table the G.M.T. is arranged in the same order as the observations. The exact site of each separate observation has been carefully noted, but the details

are herein omitted for brevity's sake. The fullest inquiries have invariably been made as to the exact position of any underground iron pipes that might interfere with the observations.

In the following calculation of the most probable dip at each station, I have omitted the observations taken at Vannes with needle No. 3, since these were made during heavy rain and under a lofty but covered ball court. The readings of No. 3 at Amiens have also been excluded, since they were only taken as a verification of the results obtained with No. 1, and were only single readings.

The latitudes and longitudes in Table II. are taken from the 'Connaissance des Temps,' and the differences between the latitude and longitude of Paris, and those of the other stations, have been calculated in geographical miles by aid of the Table in Loomis's 'Practical Astronomy,' and each verified by measurement on the geological map of MM. Dufrenov et Elie de Beaumont.

Station.	Latitude.	Longitude.	Difference of Latitude.	Difference of Longitude.
D. i.	48 5ó 1í	h m s	geogr. miles.	geogr. miles.
Paris	48 4 7	12 27 w.	- 53	. 1.40
Laval				+143
Brest	48 23 32	27 19	- 31	+318
Vannes	47 39 30	20 23	- 81	+235
Angers	47 28 17	11 34	- 94	+134
Poitiers	46 34 55	7 59	-156	+ 93
Bordeaux	44 50 19	11 40	-276	+138
Abbadia	43 23 7	16 21	-376	+196
Bayonne	43 29 29	15 16	-369	+183
Pau	43 17 44	10 51	-383	+130
Toulouse	43 36 33	3 35	-361	+ 43
Périgueux	45 11 4	6 28	-252	$^{+}_{+}$ 76
Fourges	47 4 59	15 E.	-121	3
Amiens	49 53 43	8 w.	+ 73	+ 2

TABLE II.

For the latitude and longitude of the Magnetic Observatory at Abbadia I am indebted to the kindness of M. D'ABBADIE, Membre de l'Institut, who rendered us every assistance during our stay in the South of France. The pillar on which most of the observations at this station were taken stands at about S00 yards N. of the Astronomical Observatory.

In forming the equations of condition, by which the most probable value of the dip at each station can be determined by the method of least squares, I have chosen Paris as the origin of coordinates for several reasons. The chief of these arises from the fact that Paris is practically the centre of France, and thus observations could easily be made there at the beginning and end of the Survey of 1868, and also of 1869. Add to this that frequent observations have in past times been made there, and that the able staff under the direction of M. Le Verrier keep up a continued series of determinations of the magnetic elements. Lastly, the nature of the soil guarantees a perfect freedom from the disturbing influence of igneous rocks, &c.

Table III. contains the equations of condition formed from the data in Tables I., II.

$$4 \cdot 825 = \delta + 143x + 53y$$
 $5 \cdot 497 = \delta + 318x + 31y$
 $4 \cdot 807 = \delta + 235x + 81y$
 $4 \cdot 162 = \delta + 134x + 94y$
 $3 \cdot 490 = \delta + 93x + 156y$
 $2 \cdot 403 = \delta + 138x + 276y$
 $1 \cdot 483 = \delta + 196x + 376y$
 $1 \cdot 523 = \delta + 183x + 369y$
 $0 \cdot 990 = \delta + 130x + 383y$
 $1 \cdot 037 = \delta + 43x + 361y$
 $2 \cdot 417 = \delta + 76x + 252y$
 $3 \cdot 562 = \delta - 3x + 121y$
 $5 \cdot 688 = \delta + 2x - 73y$

In these equations δ =the dip at the central station diminished by 61° ; and $x=r\cos u$, $y=r\sin u$, where u is the angle which the isoclinal lines make with the meridian, and r is the increase in the angle of the dip for every change of a geographic mile in the direction normal to the isoclinal lines.

Solving these equations by the method of least squares, we obtain the following equations:—

$$\begin{cases} 41.884 = 135 + 1690x + 2480y \\ 5718.258 = 16905 + 319466x + 326949y \\ 4912.379 = 24805 + 326949x + 757700y. \end{cases}$$

These give

$$\begin{cases} 487347 \cdot 924 = -59137\delta + 239731870x \\ 19552806 \cdot 880 = 3699700\delta + 469679480x; \\ \therefore 44585338 = 9147115\delta, \therefore \delta = 4 \cdot 874. \end{cases}$$

Hence the most probable dip at Paris derived from the observations taken at the other stations is $65^{\circ}.874 = 65^{\circ}.52!.44$.

By substitution in the above equations we find the values of x, y, u, and r,

$$x=0.0032352$$
, $y=-0.0108651$, $u=-75^{\circ} 25^{\circ} 10$, $r=0^{\circ} 0113$.

The isoclinal lines are therefore in the direction

and the distance between the lines representing the difference of 30' in the dip will be 44.25 geographical miles.

The substitution of these values of x, y, and δ in our original equations will give us the values of the computed dip at each station.

TABLE IV.

Station.	Computed Dip.	Observed Dip.	Obs Comp.	(Error)2.
Paris	65 52-44	65 53·75	+1.31	
Laval	65 46-02	65 49-5	+3.48	12.1104
Brest	66 33.96	66 27-8	-6.16	37.9456
Vannes	65 45-24	65 48-4	+3.16	9.9856
Angers		65 9.7	-7-46	55-6516
Poitiers		64 29-4	+0.60	0.3600
Bordeaux		63 24-2	+4.88	23.8141
Abbadia	62 25:38	62 29-0	+362	13.1044
Bayonne	62 27.42	62 31-4	+3.98	15.8404
Pau	62 7.98	61 59-4	-8.58	73-6164
Toulouse		62 2.2	-3.26	10.6276
Périgueux	77 71	63 25-0	+2.08	4.3264
Bourges		64 33-7	+0.70	0.4900
Amiens		66 41.3	+0.86	0.7396

 $[\nu^2] = 258.6121$

The most probable error for any single observation is then given by the formula $r=g.\sqrt{\frac{[v^2]}{m-1}}$, where g=0.6745, and m=13; ... Probable error = 3'·13.

The disturbing influence from geological causes may be judged of by Table V., which is drawn up from the map of MM. Dufrenov and Elie de Beaumont, Ingénieurs des Mines.

TABLE V.

Station.	Error.	Geological nature of the position.
Pau Angers Brest Brodeaux Bayonne Abbadia Laval Laval Vannes Périgueux Paris Amiens Bourges	8.58 7.46 6.16 4.88 3.98 3.62 3.48 3.26 3.16 2.08 1.31 0.86	Terrain tertiaire supérieur. Terrain de transition. Terrain crystallisé, primitif; gneiss. Dépôts postérieurs aux dernières dislocations du sol. Terr. tert. sup. Terrain crétacé inférieur. Terrain de transition. Dépôts postérieurs. Lerrain crystallisé, primitif. Terrain crétacé inférieur. Terrain crétacé inférieur. Terrain crétacé inférieurs. Dépôts postérieurs. Dépôts postérieurs. Terrain Jurassique, système oolitique.

The error at Pau was most probably due to the fine dust that filled the air, the observations having been taken not far from a building in the course of erection. The amount of error at Angers and at Brest might also partly be attributed to the less favourable situation in which the instruments were used. Most of the stations were, however, well adapted to magnetic observations, being on sedimentary rocks or later deposits, and equally free from all disturbing influences.

In constructing a map of the isoclinal lines from the above values of u and r, it must be borne in mind that the assumptions of these lines being straight, of their parallelism, or of a uniform rate of increase of the dip, are only first approximations to the truth in so extensive a tract of country as that covered by the Survey. The curvature of the lines towards the north as we approach the west should be very considerable.

The secular variation of the dip has not been taken into account in the above calcu-

lations, since the time occupied in the survey was not long enough to cause any considerable change to take place during the interval. The epoch for all the observations may therefore be taken as September 1st, 1868. Table VI. contains a comparison between the above results, and those published by Dr. LAMONT in his 'Erdmagnetismus.'

Station.	Dip, Jan. 1, 1858.	Sept. 1, 1868.	Diff. of Epoch.	Diff. of Dip.	Yearly rate of decrease.	Dip on Jan. 1 1869.
Paris Angers Poitiers Bordeaux Bayonne Toulouse	65 55·9 65 8·3 64 5·8	65 53.75 65 9.7 64 29.4 63 24.2 62 31.4 62 2.2	10-8	-32·75 -46·2 -38·9 -41·6 -35·4 -43·9	3·03 4·28 3·60 3·85 3·28 4·06	65 52:5 65 8:4 64 28:1 63 23:0 62 30:2 62 1:1

TABLE VI.

Supposing the same rate of decrease to hold for the remaining stations, where LAMONT did not observe this magnetic element, we have for the 1st of Jan. 1869 the following results:—

Laval .			65	48.1	Pau			$61\ 58.2$
Brest .			66	26.4	Périgueux .			$63\ 23.9$
\mathbf{V} annes.			65	47.1	Bourges .			$64\ 32.6$
Abbadia			62	27.8	Amiens .			66 40.3

The dip was observed on March 3rd, 1866, by M. D'ABBADIE at his magnetic observatory, and found to be 62° 39'·15, which gives 4'·22 for the annual decrease.

Referring, now, to former determinations of the secular decrease of the magnetic dip at Paris, we find, from a memoir by M. G. AIME, "Sur le magnétisme terrestre"*, that the mean annual decrease between the years

1671 and 1754 was 1.7 1754 and 1780 ,, 1.0 1780 and 1806 ,, 6.0.

From 1780 to 1830 the yearly diminution in the decrease amounted to 0'.051, as we learn from a Table in General Sabine's article in the Report of the British Association for 1838.

Comparing, now, the results of the Dip Observations taken in 1858 and 1868 with the mean of those obtained by Arago, Humboldt, and Mathieu from 1825 to 1830, we find the annual decrease of the dip at Paris to be 2'·82 for 1843, whilst that for 1863–4 is 3'·68, which shows that there is at present a gradual acceleration in the decrease of this element amounting to about 0'·043 per annum. Dr. Lamont gives 2'·7 as the annual diminution for 1858, which is somewhat smaller than the amount found above.

^{*} Published in the Annales de Chimie et de Physique, 3° série, t. xvii.

The Magnetic Intensity.

The method invariably adopted for determining the horizontal component of the earth's magnetic force was that of vibrations and deflections.

The horizontal, vertical, and total forces are calculated to English measure, one foot, one second of mean solar time, and one grain being assumed as the units of space, of time, and of mass.

The vertical and total forces are obtained from the absolute measure of the horizontal force and the dip.

The observed times of vibration are entered in the Table without correction.

The time of one vibration has been obtained from the mean of twelve determinations of the time of 100 or of 200 vibrations.

In deducing from the observed vibrations and deflections the product and ratio of the magnetic moment of the magnet and the earth's horizontal magnetic intensity, the induction and temperature corrections have always been applied, and the observed time of vibration has been corrected for the effect of torsion of the suspending thread.

The induction coefficient μ is 0.000244.

The temperature corrections have always been obtained from the formula

$$q(t_0-35^\circ)+q'(t_0-35^\circ)^2$$

where t_0 is the observed temperature, and 35° Fahr. the adopted standard temperature. The values of the coefficients q and q' are respectively 0.0001128 and 0.000000436.

The correction for error of graduation of the deflection bar at 1 foot is +0.00004 ft., and at 1.3 foot +0.000064 ft.

It has been found necessary to apply the correction $\left(1 - \frac{8}{86400}\right)$ for the rate of the chronometer at two stations only, *i. e.* at Laval and at Bordeaux, where the rate was respectively $+2^{s}\cdot68$ and $+2^{s}\cdot18$; at the other stations it was always less than 2^{s} .

In the calculations of the ratio $\frac{m}{X}$, the third and subsequent terms of the series $1 + \frac{P}{r^2} + \frac{Q}{r^4} + \dots$ have always been omitted.

The value of the constant P was found to be -0.002797.

The angular measure of one division of the scale in the vibration-apparatus was found to be =2.26.

The value of π^2 K at 90° is 1.71636; this was deduced by Mr. Welsh of Kew, from observations made with three inertia cylinders.

No correction has been applied for semiarcs of vibration, which were always small.

TABLE VII.

Station.	Dat 186		G.M	т.	Distance of centres of magnets,	Temp.	Obs			$\operatorname{Log} \frac{m}{\overline{X}}$.	Date.	G	.M.T.	Temp.	Time of one vibration.	Log mX.
D		11	h		10	7ĵ·8	13 :	n/s	~ <u>~</u>	0.051.45	10		m	85-8	7.130/0	0.90100
Paris	Aug.	11	10		10					9-07147	Aug. 10				5-11042	0.30100
			11		1.0	80.5	13 :			9-07134	11		23	78.3	5-11138	0.30029
			11 3	1	1.3	79.2	6	6	2/	9-07135		9	31	*****	5-11294	0.30003
71		15	11 4	-	1.0	70.2	10	00	10	9-07016	15			69.0	5-11173	0.30023
Laval	"	19	3 2		1.0	72.5	13 5			9-06992	1		5 13		5-10733	0 30035
			3 4		1.3	77·9 78·2	13 5	5		9.07025		1 -		*****	5-10745	0.30035
1		-	0 4	*	1.9	10.2	0	9	00	9.0/023			46	70.2	5-10745	0.30048
I		- 1		-										70.8		0.30060
				1	1		1					9	55	70-5	5-10676	0.30055
Brest		20	7.5		1.0	61.5	13	177		9-07919	. 20		28 A.M.	58.8	5-10694	0 29259
Diese	**	20	8 1		1.3	61.9				9.07941	1 "			58.8	5-15046	0.29260
1			0 1	°	1.9	91.9	D.	14	20	9'0/941		0	ao	90.0	5-15042	0-29259
r		21	10 5	a	1.0	66.0	13 :	an		9.07026	21	1	46	68.0	5-15044	0-30202
Vannes	**	41	11 2		1.3	65.5	6			9-06985	"		54	66.9	5·09825 5·09760	0.30206
1		1	11 3		1.0		13 5		4			9		67.9	5.09783	0.30209
Į.		1	11 0		10	65.7	10 7	Z 9	w	9.06994			37	62.0	5.09384	0.30237
Ammon		24	9 1		1-0	65.2	13	10		9-06168	24		24	70.2	5.05212	0.30995
Angers	71	24	9 4		1.0	63·8				9.06157	,, 24	Z	24	102	0.00212	0.90399
Poitiers		26	5 3		1.0	660	13				26	ء ا	13	64.2	5.01525	0.31585
romers	21	40	0 0	9	1.0	000	12 3	oz.	91	9-05017	., 26		21	63.7	5.01475	031586
1		1		- 1								0	21	63.9		0.31583
Bordeaux		29	2 2		1-0	70-2	12 2	ao.	5	9-03671	29	١.	0	71.0	4.94079	
Dordeaux	11	23	3 1		1.3	70-2		38 ·			,, 00		8 22	71.2		0.32817
		ĺ	0 1	-	1.9	103	9 6	30	14	9.04311	,, 30	6	46	70.5	4.94679	
Abbadia	C	1	5 1	۸ ا	1.0	73.9	12	8	1	9.02540	Sept. 1		54	76.8	4.87851	
ADDRESS	sept.	1,	5 5		1.3	73·5	5 8		9	9.02575	1		20	75.5		0.34085
1		Ì	9 9	۱ د	1.9	19.9	3 6	30	9	3'02313	*****	4	28	75.5		0.34013
- 1		i			I				- 1			*	20	100	4.88044	
Damana		5	2 4	,	1.0	89.5	12		97	9-02522	5		35	95.0	4.88179	
Bayonne	*,	-	4	"	10	09.9	12	3	31	9.02322	,, 3		54	95.2		0.34124
The state of the s		إير	11 2	e	1.0	81.5	12	1	14	9-02199	7		2	79.0	4.86188	0.34379
Pau	**	1	11 4	١ ٠	10	01.9	12	1	14	9.02199	,,	10		79.0	4.86113	0.34392
i		į		1							1	10	30	130	4.86150	0.34386
Toulouse!		9	2 1	0	1-0	84.8	12	2	7	9-02277	. 9	11	5	80.9	4.85392	0.34534
Louiouse	٠,	9	2 4		1.3	85.9	5 5		í	9.02260	, 9		28	82.2	4.85368	0.34547
			2 4	0	1.9	09.9	0 2	2/	٠,	9.04200	10		52	87.6	4 85375	0.34587
1				1	1		l				, 10		16		4.85504	0.34560
				İ	1						i		24	87·2 87·5	4.85396	0 34583
1				ĺ			1				1		28	87.5	4.85283	0.34603
D'aireanne		12	3 4	9	1.0	80-7	12 9	90	1	9-03809	12		35	80.8	4.94071	0.32995
Périgueux	*1	12			10	00 1	٠ - ١	4.0		าง บองปฐา	14		30	70.0	5.01896	0.31554
Bourges	****	16	5 5		1.0	66.7	13	90	28	9-07024	, 10		34	72.4	5.12921	0.29683
Paris	**	10		0	10	007	10	43	00	0.01024	1 10		17 A.V.	62.2	5.11971	0.29775
Amions		20	2.5	8	1.0	70.5	12	47	71	9.07967	1 30		36 A.M.	60.2	5.18455	0.28667
Amiens	44	20	3 1		1.3	69.1				9.07994			40 A.M.	60-4	5.18425	0.28673
		-	וטו	0	10	05.1	0	14					44	60.9	5.18392	
1				1	. 1						1	; 0	44	000	J 10004	V 40000

The values of the total force and of its components, as also the changes in the magnetic moment of the deflecting magnet, are at once deduced from the above Table.

TABLE VIII.

Station.	Horizontal Force.	Vertical Force.	Total Force.	Moment of Magnet
Paris	4.1162	9-1926	10.0721	0.4852
Laval	4.1226	9-1840	10.0668	0.4845
Brest	4.0424	9-2807	10-1228	0.4852
Vannes	4-1310	9-1948	10-0802	0.4854
Angers	4.2088	9.0926	10.0196	0.4851
Poitiers	4.2938	8.9979	9-9701	0-4820
Bordeaux	4.4093	8.8064	9-8487	0.4834
Abbadia	4.5439	8.7225	9 8351	0.4820
Bayonne	4.5504	8.7498	9.8626	0.4823
Pau	4.5807	8-6113	9.7539	0.4819
Toulouse	4.5867	8.6397	9.7818	0-4833
Périgueux	4.4252	8.8432	9-8887	0.4831
Bourges	4.2830	9.0045	9-9713	0.4828
Paris	4.1070	9-1869	10.0631	0.4828
Amiens	4.0129	9:3128	10-1403	0 4823

Deflections not having been observed at Bourges, it was necessary to compute the value of m, in order to eliminate it from the product mX obtained by the vibrations. The mean value of m during the survey was 0.48335 at epoch Sept. 1st, 1868; the mean for the remainder of 1868 was 0.48037, therefore the variation per month $=\frac{298}{2\cdot5}=119\cdot2$, ... the value on Sept. 14 should have been 0.48283. This agrees well with the mean value of m at Périgueux on the 12th and Paris on the 16th, i. e. 0.48294. Forming, now, our equations of condition from the above data, and solving them by the method of least squares, precisely in the same manner as in the case of the dip, we obtain the equations

$$12.3419 = 13f + 1690x + 2480y$$
, &c.,

where f= the total force diminished by 9.

From these we obtain

$$6279 \cdot 2889 = -59137f + 239731870x,$$

 $4089465 \cdot 7980 = 3699700f + 469679480x;$
 $\therefore 977426255 = 914711558f \text{ and } f = 1 \cdot 06857.$

This gives for the most probable computed value of the total force at Paris 10.0686, whereas the mean of the direct observations was 10.0676; difference =0.0010.

By substitution we at once get the quantities

$$x=0.00028979$$
, $y=-0.0008223$; $\therefore r=0.000872$, and $u=-70^{\circ} 34' 13''.1$.

Hence the direction of the isodynamic lines is

and the total force changes 0.1 for every 115 geographical miles along the normal to these lines.

We can now draw up a Table of the computed errors in the observations.

Station.	Computed T. F.	Observed T. F.	Obs Comp.	(Error)2.
Paris	10.0686	10-0676	-0.0010	
Laval,	10-0670	10.0668	-0.0002	0.00000004
Brest	10-1352	10.1228	-0.0124	0.00015376
Vannes	10-0705	10.0802	+0.0096	0.00009216
Angers	10-0301	10-0196	-0.0105	0.00011025
Poitiers	9.9672	9.9701	+0.0029	0.00000841
Bordeaux	9.8816	9.8487	-0.0329	0.00108241
Abbadia	9.8162	9-8351	+0.0189	0.00035721
Bayonne	9.8172	9.8626	+0.0454	0.00206116
Pau	9.7913	9.7539	-0.0374	0.00139876
Toulouse	9.7842	9.7818	-0.0024	0.00000576
Périgueux	9.8834	9-8887	+0.0053	0.00002809
Bourges	9.9682	9.9713	+0.0031	0.00000961
Amiens	10-1292	10.1403	+0.0111	0.00012321

TABLE IX.

 $[\nu^2] = 0.00543083$

The most probable error of any one observation will therefore be

$$=r=0.6745\sqrt{\frac{[r^2]}{12}}=0.0144.$$

For the sake of comparison with the results of former observations, and in particular of those of Dr. LAMONT, we will determine the direction of the lines of equal intensity for the horizontal component of the earth's magnetism.

By a process identical with that employed for the Total Force, we now find that at our central station the Horizontal Force=4·1156,

x = -0.00037605, y = 0.0013401, and $\therefore r = 0.0013919$, and $u = -74^{\circ}19'30''.4$; or the direction sought is

the probable error in any single observation being now 0.0067.

We will next place side by side the values of the Horizontal Force for 1858 and 1868.

Station.	Jan. 1st, 1858.	Sept. 1st, 1868.	Difference.
Amiens	3.9639	4.0129	+0.0490
ngers	4.1450	4.2088	+0.0638
Bayonne	4.4875	4.5504	+0.0628
ordeaux	4.3730	4.4093	+0.0363
aris	4.0685	4:1116	+0.0431
érigueux	4:3699	4.4252	+0.0553
Poitiers	4.2341	4.2938	± 0.0597
Coulouse	4.5243	4.5867	+0.0624

TABLE X.

Hence the yearly increase of the Horizontal Force in the West of France =0.0050. Dr. LAMONT gives 0.0048 as the value for 1858, therefore we may conclude that there is a slight acceleration of about 0.00002 per annum in the increase of this element.

The Magnetic Declination.

The method adopted in the determination of this element was the following.

The azimuth of a fixed horizontal mark, situated at a considerable distance, was first read with Cooke's transit theodolite, and then a transit of both limbs of the sun taken with the same instrument, the time being noted by Frodsham's chronometer. The azimuth circle having been read, the theodolite was removed, and Jones's unifilar placed on the same tripod-stand. The reading of the fixed mark and of the collimator magnet completed the observation. The torsion of the silk thread was removed entirely, as far as that was possible, before each observation.

Brest was the only station at which the above method was departed from, and there, on account of the confined space in which the observations were taken, a distant mark could not be sighted. It was therefore considered that more accurate results would be obtained by observing the sun's transit by reflection from the mirror of the unifilar, according to Dr. LLOYD's method. The chief reason for not using this method at other stations was that the line of collimation of the telescope was not perpendicular to the axis of the mirror, and the motion in azimuth of the axis was not sufficient to correct this error.

The correction to be applied to the azimuth reading of the sun on account of

this position of the mirror is given by the formula $x = \frac{2m \sin^2 \frac{\alpha}{2}}{\cos x}$, where the constant

$$2m = \frac{\cos \alpha' \cos \alpha''}{\sin \frac{\alpha' + \alpha''}{2} \sin \frac{\alpha' - \alpha''}{2}}, \ \alpha, \ \alpha', \ \alpha'' \text{ being the altitudes of the sun at the times of obser-}$$

vation.

The formula $\cos \alpha = \frac{\sin h \cos \delta}{\sin A}$ was used for determining the altitudes.

The determination of the meridian line, or of the azimuth of the sun, at each observation depends mainly for its correctness upon the knowledge of the error and rate of the chronometer employed. No pains were therefore spared to prevent all jolting of the instrument during the voyage, and no opportunity was missed of comparing it with other chronometers. The following Table is the result of these comparisons, made always with the greatest courtesy by those in charge at the several observatories and dépôts de chronomètres.

The chronometer is a large-size marine instrument by Frodsham, No. 3148; it has been in constant use at Stonyhurst Observatory since the beginning of 1863, and its daily rate is found by the observation of clock stars on every favourable night. Its mean daily rate previous to the journey was 0°-57, and afterwards it increased to 0°-61. The rate is found to vary somewhat during the year. Mr. Frodsham kindly examined the instrument before it was taken to France and immediately after its return, and declared it to be in perfect order.

Station.	Date.	G. M. T.	Error.	Daily rate
Stonyhurst Observatory London, Frodsham Paris Observatory Brest Observatory Bordeaux, Dépôts des Chronomètres Abbadia Observatory Toulouse Observatory Paris Observatory London, Frodsham Stonyhurst Observatory	Aug. 7	3 30 2 15 2 15 2 15 2 15 1 13	201 8 +0 59·14 +1 13·05 +1 15·63 +1 31·71 +1 32·88 +1 34·05 +1 39·0 +1 37·7 + +1 51·5 +0 34·35 +2 15·58	* +0·57 +1·8 +0·66 +1·17 +1·17 +2·18 * small +0·92 +1·0

TABLE XI.

At Toulouse the chronometer was only compared as to rate by the Director of the Observatory, the absolute times of comparison not being registered.

Altitudes of the sun were taken at nearly all the stations with Cooke's small altazimuth, but these were only used as a check on the above results and for intermediate stations. These direct determinations of the rate of our instrument were exceedingly useful, from showing us that the two principal disturbances probably do not interfere in the least with the results obtained, since the first took place between Poitiers and Bordeaux, and the second between Amiens and London.

In the following Table of observations the first line of azimuths at each station was read on the theodolite circle, and the second line on the unifilar. The centre division of the magnet was always made to coincide with the centre line of the telescope, except at Vannes, where it was 0.1 div. to the apparent left. The zero of the scale of the collimator magnet was +7.2 div., each scale-division being =2' 9".805.

At Abbadia the azimuth of the mark A, i. e. the Biarritz Lighthouse, was accurately determined by M. Antoine d'Abbadie, Président de la Société Météorologique de France.

TABLE XII.

Paris	Aug.	-		1		Azimuth of Sun.	Mark.	Magnet.
1		12	h m s 5 25 59-375 6 15 0	m s +1 16·19	+0.66	261° 5′ 10′	187 45 20 240 37 25 108 45 20	201 40 25
Loval	,,	14	2 26 55.75	+1 23.67	+2.68	110 12 12·5	161 37 55 144 12 10	" 152 4 45
Brest	" :		3 10 10 3 17·75 10 26	+1 35-22	+1.17	252 6 12-5	257 23 15	190 57 40
Vannes	" -	21	4 59 49·5 5 45	+1 36·39 +1 37·56	+1.17	107 46 55 215 55 13:3	142 21 25 106 3 50 244 26 30	147 12 0
	,, 1	22	5 34 24·08 6 38	+1 3/35	+117	"	101 21 10 244 31 20	142 20 0
Angers	" 9	4	5 8 21·5 5 52	+1 39-90	+1.17	254 37 40	101 26 50 252 55 45 127 49 15	203 16 25
Poitiers	., 9	6	10 10 5.08	+1 42.24	+1-17	155 27 18-3	198 30 25 253 24 5 115 23 10	**
Bordeaux	•		11 11 5 35 47·56	+1 29.0	+2·18	228 17 43-8	202 38 25 139 51 30 92 12 40	266 16 45 250 38 30
Abbadia Bayonne		5, 1	3 5 11 18 16·13 12 50	+1 35·52 +1 40·46	$^{+0.92}_{+0.92}$	223 25 15	217 21 15 135 55 55 127 15 15	146 5 40 215 23 45
Pau		7	8 24 41·88 8 48	+1 42-30	+0.92	246 29 21·7 264 15 45	193 19 20 93 47 35	196 50 50
Toulouse	,,		9 37 11·18 10 12	+1 44·14	+0.92	264 15 45	176 7 25 194 9 0 220 37 25	132 39 35
Périgueux	,, 1		9 9 42·18	+1 46.90	+0 92	127 41 58-3	238 38 20 250 53 57·5 206 46 45	" 119 21 25
Bourges	٠,	6	8 49 22·38 9 45 3 30 32·76	+1 48.74	+0.93	261 31 15 139 23 3·3	118 15 45 162 43 15 165 54 15	164 7 35
Paris Amiens	,,	20	4 35 30 1 32 38·75 2 12	+1 54:26	+0.92	118 42 5	151 51 20 234 19 0 100 14 55	222 36 40 112 19 35

The azimuth of the sun at the time of observation, calculated by the formula $\cot A = \cot h \frac{\cos (mP + \lambda)}{\sin mP}$, where $mP = \tan^{-1}(\cos h \cot \delta)$, gives the results in Table XIII.

TABLE XIII.

Station.	Azimuth of the Sun.	Declination corrected for scale-reading.
Paris	9 ² 13 13 9	17 48 15
Laval	51 55 12:3	17 48 31·5 19 7 45·6
Brest	50 39 10.9	21 3 32 6
Vannes	84 6 11-4	19 55 47.0
,,	89 36 59 1	20 37 19-6
,,		20 38 9 6
Angers	86 50 31.4	19 8 39-0
Poitiers	42 11 13:4	19 8 49 0 18 21 27 1
Bordeaux	91 29 15.4	18 15 33-8
Abbadia	*************************	18 17 64
Bayonne	19 21 5.4	18 26 20-8
Pau	68 1 9.2	17 52 21 3
Toulouse	47 48 10-3 48 36 28-1	17 10 0·7 17 43 34·3
Périgueux	55 27 8·7	17 2 44 1
Paris	64 29 14-6	17 58 39-1
Amiens	33 41 22.6	18 21 27.8

An application of the method of least squares, similar in all details to that made use of above, furnishes the equations

$$20.125 = 13D + 1690x + 2480y$$
, &c.

Hence

$$D=0.92921$$
, $x=0.01056199$, $y=-0.0039534$;

 $r=0^{\circ}.011278$ per geographical mile, *i.e.* the rate of change in the declination along the normal to the isogonic lines is 1° for every 88.7 geographical miles, and $u=-20^{\circ}31'16''$, or the direction of the isogonic lines is

We might naturally expect that observations of this magnetic element would lead to much less satisfactory results than those of the Dip or Total Force; for the almost continuous, and often energetic, action of disturbing forces render any limited number of absolute readings of the declination at different stations a very uncertain guide in calculating the exact direction taken by the isogonic lines; whereas in the case of the vertical and horizontal components of the total force the daily disturbances are of a much less exaggerated character, and the maximum perturbations of not frequent occurrence. The subjoined Table will show the probable amount of error at each station.

Station.	Computed Declination.	Observed Declination.	Diff.	
Paris	17:929	17.891	- 2·28	
Laval	19-251	19-129	- 7.32	
Brest	21.165	21-059	- 6:36	
Vannes	20-091	20.279	+11.28	
Angers	18-973	19-146	+10.38	
Poitiers	18.295	18:358	÷ 3.78	
Bordeaux	18-296	18-259	- 2.22	
Abbadia	18-513	18-285	-13.68	
Bayonne	18-403	18-439	+ 2.16	
Pau	17:788	17-873	+ 5.10	
Toulouse	17-044	17:167	+12.66	
Périgueux	17:736	17-726	- 0.60	
Bourges	17.419	17-047	-22.32	
Amiens	18-239	18:358	+ 7.14	

TABLE XIV.

the probable error of any single observation will therefore be 6'.9549. We are now able to determine the secular variation of the declination.

T	V 1	17
TABLE	Λ.	٧.

Station.	Epoch January 1st, 1858.	September 1st, 1868.	Variation.
Amiens Angers Bayonne Bordeaux Paris Périgueux Poitiers Tonlouse	19 56 18 20 16 18 19 57 48 20 0 12 19 36 18 19 26 30 19 56 24 18 45 0	18 21 27-8 19 8 44-0 18 26 20-8 18 15 33-8 17 53 27-8 17 43 34-3 18 21 27-1 17 10 0-7	-1 34 50 2 -1 7 34 0 -1 31 27 2 -1 44 38 2 -1 42 50 2 -1 42 55 7 -1 34 56 9 -1 34 59 3

At Angers an iron pipe was lying N. and S. at a distance of about 11 yards from the place of observation. Neglecting, therefore, this station, we find the yearly decrease of the Declination in the West of France to be $9' 4'' \cdot 9$.

M. G. Aime, in the "Mémoire" already quoted, gives the mean annual variation of the Declination at Paris for past years.

Epoch.	Declination.	Yearly variation.	
1663 to 1767	0 0 to 19 16	+11.0	
1767 to 1785	19 16 to 22 0	+ 9.0	
1785 to 1805	22 0 to 22 5	+ 0.2	
1805 to 1817	22 5 to 22 19	+ 1.1	
1817 to 1825	22 19 to 22 22	+.0.3	

Continuing this summary a step further we have

1825 to 1858, 22° 22' to 19° 36', yearly diminution 5'·0, 1858·0 to 1868·7, 19° 36' to 17° 53', yearly diminution 9'·6,

whence it appears that the declination is rapidly on the decrease, with a mean yearly acceleration in the decrease of 0'-22.

The value of the yearly diminution, as given by Dr. LAMONT, is 7'-6 for 1858, which shows a steadiness in the variation of this magnetic element.

A glance at the maps which accompany this report will show at once the changes that ten years have produced in the position of the lines of equal declination, dip, and intensity. The distance between the lines remains in all cases almost constant for the same element, and the amount is moreover identical for the isoclinal and isogonic lines, the values of r being respectively 0.678 and 0.677. The angle moved through by the lines is more considerable in the cases of the isoclinal lines than for the others, and the direction of this motion is away from the astronomical meridian in the case of the isogonics and isoclinals, and scarcely perceptibly towards the astronomical meridian for the lines of equal horizontal force.

In the maps of Lamont's 'Erdmagnetismus' the lines are curved, and the epochs for the dip, horizontal force, and declination are severally August 1848, June 1848, and March 1854; whereas I have taken January 1st, 1858, as the common epoch, and drawn the lines straight, for the sake of comparison with the lines for 1868, which are laid down without any modification from the calculated values of u and r. The dotted lines, which belong to the survey of 1858, can therefore only be looked on as first approximations to the results derived from Lamont's observations. The broken lines are those obtained by the above calculations.

The numbers marked at each station are the means of the observed values, and they serve to show the degree of approximative correctness attained by the adopted method

of reduction. A comparison of these maps with those of the latest surveys of the British Islands manifests a striking resemblance between the isoclinal lines in France and England. For in the Report by General Sabine for the British Association 1861, we find that the direction of the isoclinals in England was -65° 5' in 1837, and -71° 22' in 1860; therefore, supposing the rate of change to remain constant, we have -73° 33' 2 as the value for 1868, -73° 25' 2 being the amount found for France in August and September of the same year. The values of r, 0.678 and 0.644, show, however, that the lines are closer packed in France than in England, and this is confirmed by the observations taken with needle No. 1 at Kew and at Stonyhurst immediately after our return from France; for if the angles be computed on the assumption of the same data holding in England as in France, we shall have:

			Observed.	Computed.	Difference.
Kew			68·087	$68\cdot241$	- 9.24
Stonyhurst			69.707	70.306	- 35·94

The isogonics of France are nearly in the same direction as those of Scotland, as seen in Dr. Stewart's Report of Mr. Welsh's Survey; but they are nearly twice as close in Scotland as in France, the values of r being 0'-677 in 1868 for the latter country, and 1'-465 for the former in 1858.

The greatest difference is in the isodynamics, their angle for England being -58° 32'-7, and r=0.00106, whilst for France at the same epoch, 1868, the values are -70° 34' 13"-1 and 0.00087.

The following is a complete Table of all the elements at the Epoch Jan. 1st, 1869.

Station.	Dip.	Declination.	Horizontal Force	
Abbadia	62 27·8	18 14:10	4.5456	
Amiens	66 40.3	18 18 96	4-0143	
Angers	65 8-4	19 5.58	4.2106	
Bayonne	62 30-2	18 23-46	4.5520	
Bordeaux	63 23.0	18 12-54	4.4110	
Bourges	64 32.6	17 0-18	4-2845	
Brest	66 26-4	21 0.30	4.0442	
Laval	65 48-1	19 4.38	4-1245	
Paris	65 52.5	17 50-46	4.1133	
Pau	61 58-2	17 49-50	4.5823	
Périgueux	63 23.9	17 40-92	4.4268	
Poiners	64 28-1	18 18-36	4.2955	
Toulouse	62 1-1	17 7.32	4.5883	
Vannes	65 47-1	20 13-50	4-1328	
Annual Variation	-3.68	-9.1	+0.0050	
Acceleration	0.043	0-19	0.00002	

TABLE XVI.

In none of the previous reductions have I ventured to introduce a correction for any magnetic disturbance that might have existed at the time of observation, or for diurnal range, since there were no self-recording magnetographs in France by which these cor-

rections could be accurately determined, and any correction founded on the supposition of the simultaneous similar action of the disturbing forces in England and in France might appear somewhat arbitrary. That a correction, however, might be applied with advantage is rendered more than probable by the results of the comparison of the Kew and Lisbon magnetograms, and by the great similarity between the daily range in England and in Italy which I remarked in some of the Florence declination-curves sent by Signor Donati. It would seem, from the comparisons made by Dr. Stewart and Senhor Capello, that the declination and horizontal-force disturbances at Kew and Lisbon are simultaneous, in the same direction, and in the proportion of 1.6 to 1 for the declination, and 1.8 to 1 for the horizontal force; whilst, on the other hand, Dr. Stewart remarks that there is "very little likeness between the vertical-force curves."

We will therefore assume that the perturbations of the declination and horizontal force are simultaneous in England and in France, and in the proportion of 1:3 to 1 and 1:4 to 1 respectively, and we will take the corrections from the magnetograms obtained at Stonyhurst Observatory during the survey, since the Kew and Stonyhurst curves may be considered as almost identical.

From hourly measurements of the undisturbed portions of our declination-curves from Dec. 16th, 1868 to Jan. 16th, 1869, we obtain 2·147 as the mean reading of the ordinate for Jan. 1st, 1869; and taking the difference between this and the ordinate at the time of each observation, we obtain a number which, when divided by 1·3 and multiplied into 28′ 38″·875, the coefficient of the declination magnetograms, gives us the correction in arc for reducing the French observations to their mean value on Jan. 1st, 1869. No correction for torsion of thread has been found necessary.

The results obtained from the corrected observations compared with the values found above, will best show what is gained by this correction.

From uncorrected observations.	From corrected observations.
x = 0.010562	0.010385
y = -0.003953	-0.003833
$u = -20^{\circ} 31' 16''$	-20° 15′ 35″
r = 0.011278	0.01107
Error of Paris $-2^{l} \cdot 28$	1'.26
Probable error of any observation 6'-95	7·15 .

These figures of themselves would scarcely justify us in giving much weight to this correction.

The horizontal-force magnetogram seems to offer a surer means of improving our results. The standard ordinate has been obtained from hourly measurements of the curves on undisturbed days in Aug. and Sept. 1868, the gradual loss of magnetism of the suspended magnet being taken into account. The coefficient of the curve is 0.02689. In this case the amount of difference between the mean observed and the computed values at each station is generally diminished by the correction; but, owing to the smallness of these differences and to the trace of the magnetograph having been lost at the

time of the observations at Angers and Bordeaux, where the differences were greatest, the total change of the values is inconsiderable.

The following comparison will give an idea of the results:-

		orrected observations. -0.00037605	From corrected observations. -0.00037562	
•		0.0013401	0.0013398	
	u =	74° 19′ 30″·4	74° 20′ 19″.5	
•	r =	0.0013919	0.0013914	
Error at Paris		0.0040	0.0034	
Mean probable error		0.0067	0.0065	

A similar correction might be applied to the Total Force and the Dip; but since the simultaneous variations of the vertical force are less understood than those of the horizontal force or the declination, the attempt could scarcely be expected to lead to any satisfactory result in the present state of our knowledge.

APPENDIX.

The observations made with the same instruments at Loyola on Sept. 3 and 4 are not taken into account in the above reductions, since we wished to confine ourselves entirely to the West of France. It may, however, be of some use to subjoin a synopsis of the results obtained.

Sept. 3rd, 3^h 11^m 9^s·26 G.M.T. Azimuth of sun 165° 35′ 46″.7. Azimuth of mark A 141° 53′ 40″, read with the altazimuth.

3h 43m Azimuth of magnet 229° 49′ 5″. Azimuth of mark A 206° 42′ 40″, read with the unifilar.

Correction for zero-point of scale of collimator magnet -15' 34"·6.

The declination is not deduced from want of sufficiently reliable data as to latitude and longitude.

Sept. 3rd, 6^h 26^m, temp. 71^c·6 Fahr. Observed deflection 12^c 7' 2". Distance between centres of magnets 1 ft.

,, 4^h 54^m, ,, 77°·0 Fahr. Observed time of one vibration 4°·87359.

Hence

Sept. 4. No. 1 Needle. Observed dip 62° 26'.

IV. A Memoir on Abstract Geometry. By Professor Cayley, F.R.S.

Received October 14,-Read December 16, 1869.

I SUBMIT to the Society the present exposition of some of the elementary principles of an Abstract m-dimensional Geometry. The science presents itself in two ways,—as a legitimate extension of the ordinary two- and three-dimensional geometries; and as a need in these geometries and in analysis generally. In fact whenever we are concerned with quantities connected together in any manner, and which are, or are considered as variable or determinable, then the nature of the relation between the quantities is frequently rendered more intelligible by regarding them (if only two or three in number) as the coordinates of a point in a plane or in space: for more than three quantities there is, from the greater complexity of the case, the greater need of such a representation; but this can only be obtained by means of the notion of a space of the proper dimensionality; and to use such representation, we require the geometry of such space. An important instance in plane geometry has actually presented itself in the question of the determination of the number of the curves which satisfy given conditions: the conditions imply relations between the coefficients in the equation of the curve; and for the better understanding of these relations it was expedient to consider the coefficients as the coordinates of a point in a space of the proper dimensionality.

A fundamental notion in the general theory presents itself, slightly in plane geometry, but already very prominently in solid geometry; viz. we have here the difficulty as to the form of the equations of a curve in space, or (to speak more accurately) as to the expression by means of equations of the twofold relation between the coordinates of a point of such curve. The notion in question is that of a k-fold relation,—as distinguished from any system of equations (or onefold relations) serving for the expression of it, and as giving rise to the problem how to express such relation by means of a system of equations (or onefold relations). Applying to the case of solid geometry my conclusion in the general theory, it may be mentioned that I regard the twofold relation of a curve in space as being completely and precisely expressed by means of a system of equations (P=0, Q=0, ..., T=0), when no one of the functions P, Q, ... T is a linear function, with constant or variable integral coefficients, of the others of them, and when every surface whatever which passes through the curve has its equation expressible in the form U=AP+BQ...+KT, with constant or variable integral coefficients, A, B, ... K. It is hardly necessary to remark that all the functions and coefficients are taken to be rational functions of the coordinates, and that the word integral has reference to the coordinates.

General Explanations; Relation, Locus, &c.—Article Nos. 1 to 36.

- 1. Any m quantities may be represented by means of m+1 quantities as the ratios of m of these to the remaining m+1th quantity, and thus in place of the absolute values of the m quantities we may consider the ratios of m+1 quantities.
- 2. It is to be noticed that we are throughout concerned with the ratios of the m+1 quantities, not with the absolute values; this being understood, any mention of the ratios is in general unnecessary; thus I shall speak of a relation between the m+1 quantities, meaning thereby a relation as regards the ratios of the quantities; and so in other cases. It may also be noticed that in many instances a limiting or extreme case is sometimes included, sometimes not included, under a general expression; the general expression is intended to include whatever, having regard to the subject-matter and context, can be included under it.
 - 3. Postulate. We may conceive between the $\overline{m+1}$ quantities a relation*.
- 4. A relation is either regular, that is, it has a definite manifoldness, or, say, it is a k-fold relation; or else it is irregular, that is, composed of relations not all of the same manifoldness. As to the word "composed," see post, No. 14.
- 5. The ratios are determined (not in general uniquely) by means of a m-fold relation; and a relation cannot really be more than m-fold. But the notion of a more than m-fold relation has nevertheless to be considered. A relation may be, either in mere appearance or else according to a provisional conception thereof, more than m-fold, and be really m-fold or less than m-fold. Thus a relation expressed by $\overline{m+1}$ or more equations is in general and $prim\hat{a}$ facie more than m-fold; but if the equations are not independent, and equivalent to m or fewer equations, then the relation will be m-fold or less than m-fold. Or the given relation may depend on parameters, and so long as these are arbitrary be really more than m-fold; but the parameters may have to be, and be accordingly, so determined that the relation shall be m-fold or less than m-fold. A more than m-fold relation is said to be superdeterminate.
- 6. A system of any number of onefold relations, whether independent or dependent, and if more than m of them, whether compatible or incompatible, is termed a 'Plexus,' viz. if the number of onefold relations be $=\theta$, then the plexus is θ -fold. A θ -fold plexus constitutes a relation which is at most θ -fold, but which may be less than θ -fold.
- 7. Every relation whatever is expressible, and that precisely, by means of a plexus; but for the expression of a k-fold relation we may require a more than k-fold plexus.
- * The whole difficulty of the subject is (so to speak) in the analytical representation of a relation; without solving it, the theories of the text cannot be exhibited analytically with equivalent generality; and I have for this reason presented them in an abstract form without analytical expression or commentary. But it is perfectly easy to obtain analytical illustrations; a one-fold relation is expressed by an equation P=0; and (although a k-fold relation is not in general expressible by k equations) any k independent equations P=0, Q=0, &c. constitute a k-fold relation. Thus (No. 4), an instance of an irregular relation is MP=0, MQ=0, viz. this is satisfied by the satisfaction either of the one-fold relation M=0, or of the two-fold relation P=0, Q=0. And Post, Nos. 14 and 21, the relation composed of the two-one-fold relations P=0 and Q=0 is the one-fold relation P=0, Q=0.

- 8. Postulate. We may conceive a m-dimensional space, the indetermination of the ratios of m+1 coordinates, and locus in quo of the point, the unique determination of these ratios. More generally we may conceive any number of spaces, each of its own dimensionality, and existing apart by itself.
- 9. Conversely, any m+1 quantities may be taken as the coordinates of a point in a m-dimensional space.
- 10. The m+1 coordinates may have a k-fold relation; it appears (ante, No, 5) that the case k > m, or where the relation is more than m-fold, is not altogether excluded; but this is not now under consideration. The two limiting cases k=0 and k=m will be presently mentioned; the remaining case is k>0< m; the system of points the coordinates of which satisfy such a relation constitutes a k-fold or (m-k)dimensional locus. And k is the manifoldness, m-k the dimensionality, of the locus.
- 11. If k=m, that is, if the ratios are determined, we have the point-system, which, if the determination be unique, is a single point. The expression "a locus" may extend to include the point-system, and therefore also the point. If k=0, that is, if the coordinates are not connected by any relation, we have the original m-dimensional space.
- 12. We may say that the m-dimensional space is the locus in quo not only of the points in such space, but of the locus determined by any relation whatever between the coordinates; and in like manner that any (m-k)-dimensional locus in such space is a (m-k)-dimensional space, a locus in quo of the points thereof, and of every locus determined by a relation between the coordinates, implying the k-fold relation which corresponds to the (m-k)-dimensional locus.
- 13. There is not any locus corresponding to a relation which is really more than m-fold; hence in speaking of the locus corresponding to a given relation, we either assume that the relation is not more than m-fold, or we mean the locus, if any, corresponding to such relation.
- 14. Any two or more relations may be *composed* together, and they are then factors of a single *composite* relation; viz. the composite relation is a relation satisfied if, and not satisfied unless, some one of the component relations be satisfied.
- 15. The foregoing notion of composition is, it will be noticed, altogether different from that which would at first suggest itself. The definition is defective as not explaining the composition of a relation any number of times with itself, or elevation thereof to power; which however must be admitted as part of the notion of composition.
- 16. A k-fold relation which is not satisfied by any other k-fold relation, and which is not a power, is a *prime* relation. A relation which is not prime is composite, viz. it is a relation composed of prime factors each taken once or any other number of times; in particular, it may be the power of a single prime factor. Any prime factor is single or multiple according as it occurs once or a greater number of times.
- 17. A relation which is either prime or else composed of prime factors each of the same manifoldness is a regular relation; a k-fold relation is ex vi termini regular. An irregular

relation is a composite relation, the prime factors whereof are not all of the same manifoldness.

- 18. A prime k-fold relation cannot be implied in any prime k-fold relation different from itself. But a prime k-fold relation may be implied in a prime more-than-k-fold relation,—or in a composite relation, regular or irregular, each factor whereof is more than k-fold; and so also a composite relation, regular or irregular, each factor whereof is at most k-fold, may be implied in a composite relation, regular or irregular, each factor whereof is more than k-fold. In a somewhat different sense, each factor of a composite relation implies the composite relation.
- 19. A composite relation is satisfied if any particular one of the component relations is satisfied; but in order to exclude this case we may speak of a composite relation as being satisfied distributively; viz. this will be the case if, in order to the satisfaction of the composite relation, it is necessary to consider all the factors thereof, or, what is the same thing, when the reduced relation obtained by the omission of any one factor whatever is not always satisfied. And when the composite relation is satisfied distributively, the several factors thereof are satisfied alternatively; viz. there is no one which is throughout unsatisfied.
- 20. A composite onefold relation is never distributively implied in a prime k-fold relation—that is, a prime k-fold relation implies only a prime onefold relation, or at least only implies a composite onefold relation improperly, in the sense that it implies a certain prime factor of such composite onefold relation. Conversely, every k-fold relation which implies distributively a composite onefold relation is composite.
- 21. Any two or more relations may be aggregated together into, and they are then constituents of, a single aggregate relation; viz. the aggregate relation is only satisfied when all the constituent relations are satisfied. The aggregate relation implies each of the constituent relations.
- 22. There is no meaning in aggregating a relation with itself; such aggregation only occurs accidentally when two relations aggregated together become one and the same relation; and the aggregate of a relation with itself is nothing else than the original relation.
- 23. A onefold relation is not an aggregate, but is its own sole constituent; a more than onefold relation may always be considered as an aggregate of two or more constituent relations. The constituent relations determine, they in fact constitute, the aggregate relation; but the aggregate relation does not in any wise determine the constituent relations. Any relation implied in a given relation may be considered as a constituent of such given relation.
- 24. The aggregate of a k-fold and a l-fold relation is in general and at most a (k+l)-fold relation; when it is a (k+l)-fold relation, the constituent relations are independent, but otherwise, viz. if the aggregate relation is, or has for factor, a less than (k+l)-fold equation, the constituent relations are dependent or interconnected.

- 25. Passing from relations to loci, we may say that the composition of relations corresponds to the *congregation* of loci, and the aggregation of relations to the *intersection* of loci.
- 26. For, first, the locus (if any) corresponding to a given composite relation is the congregate of the loci corresponding to the several prime factors of the given relation, the locus corresponding to a single factor being taken once, and the locus corresponding to a multiple factor being taken a number of times equal to the multiplicity of the factor.
- 27. And, secondly, the locus (if any) corresponding to a given aggregate relation is the locus common to and contained in each of the loci corresponding to the several constituent relations respectively; or, what is the same thing, it is the intersection of these several loci.
- 28. It may be remarked that a k-fold locus and a l-fold locus where k+l>m (or where the aggregate relation is more than m-fold) have not in general any common locus.
- 29. Any onefold relation implied in a given k-fold relation is said to be in *involution* with the k-fold relation, and so in a system of onefold relations, if any relation be implied in the other relations, or, what is the same thing, in the relation aggregated of the other relations, then the system is said to be in *involution*; a system not in involution is said to be asyzygetic.
- 30. Consider a given k-fold relation, and, in conjunction therewith, a system of any number of one fold relations each implied in the given k-fold relation. We may omit from the system any relation implied in the remaining relations, and so successively until we arrive at an asyzygetic system. Consider now any other onefold relation implied in the given k-fold relation; this is either implied in the system of one fold relations, and it is then to be rejected, or if it is not implied in the system, it is to be added on to and made part of the system. It may happen that, in the system thus obtained, some one relation of the original system is implied in the remaining relations of the new system; but if this is so the implied relation is to be rejected; the new system will in this case contain only as many relations as the original system, and in any case the new system will be asyzygetic. Treating in the same manner every other onefold relation implied in the given k-fold relation, we ultimately arrive at an asyzygetic system of one fold relations, such that every one fold relation implied in the given k-fold relation is implied in the asyzygetic system. The number of one fold relations will be at least equal to k (for if this were not so we should have the given k-fold relation as an aggregate of less than k one fold relations); but it may be greater than k, and it does not appear that there is any superior limit to the number of one fold relations of the asyzygetic system.
- 31. The system of onefold relations is a precise equivalent of the given k-fold relation. Every set of values of the coordinates which satisfies the given k-fold relation satisfies the system of onefold relations; and reciprocally every set of values which satisfies the system of onefold relations satisfies the given k-fold relation. But if we omit any one or more of the onefold relations, then the reduced system so obtained is not a precise equi-

valent of the given k-fold relation; viz. there exist sets of values satisfying the reduced system, but not satisfying the given k-fold relation.

- 32. In fact consider a k-fold relation the aggregate of less than all of the onefold relations of the asyzygetic system, and in connexion therewith an omitted onefold relation; this omitted relation is not implied in the aggregate, and it constitutes with the aggregate not a (k+1)fold, but only a k-fold relation. This happens as follows, viz. the omitted relation is a factor of a composite onefold relation distributively implied in the aggregate; hence the aggregate is composite, and it implies distributively a composite onefold relation composed of the omitted relation and of an associated onefold relation; that is, the aggregate will be satisfied by values which satisfy the omitted relation, and also by values which (not satisfying the omitted relation) satisfy the associated relation just referred to.
- 33. Selecting at pleasure any k of the onefold relations of the asyzygetic system, being such that the aggregate of the k relations is a k-fold relation, we have a composite k-fold relation wherein each of the remaining onefold relations is alternatively implied; viz. each remaining onefold relation is a factor of a composite onefold relation implied distributively in the composite k-fold relation. Hence considering the $\overline{k+1}$ onefold relations, viz. any $\overline{k+1}$ relations of the asyzygetic system, each one of these is implied alternatively in the aggregate of the remaining k relations; and we may say that the $\overline{k+1}$ onefold relations are in convolution.
- 34. More generally any $\overline{k+1}$ or more, or all the relations of the asyzygetic system are in *convolution*, that is, any relation of the system is alternatively implied in the aggregate of the remaining relations, or indeed in the aggregate of any k relations (not being themselves in convolution) of the remaining relations of the asyzygetic system. It may be added that, besides the relations of the system, there is not any onefold relation alternatively implied in the asyzygetic system.
- 35. The foregoing theory has been stated without any limitation as to the value of k, and it has I think a meaning even when k is >m; but the ordinary case is k > m. Considering the theory as applying to this case, I remark that the last proposition, viz. that no reduced system is a precise equivalent of the given k-fold relation, is generally true only on the assumption of the existence or quasi-existence of sets of values satisfying a more than m-fold relation. For let k be >m, and, on the contrary, assume, as we usually do, that it is not in general possible to satisfy a more than m-fold relation between the coordinates; the number of relations in the system may be >m+1; and if this is so, then selecting any $\overline{m+1}$ relations of the system, it may very well happen that the given k-fold relation is not satisfied by any sets of values other than those which satisfy the $\overline{m+1}$ relations,—that is, that the $\overline{m+1}$ relations are a precise equivalent of the given k-fold relation. But even in this case the consideration of the entire system of the onefold relations is not the less advantageous; and I say in general that the given k-fold relation has for its precise and complete equivalent the asyzygetic system of onefold relations.

36. [In illustration of the foregoing Nos. 29 to 35, I remark that, for the functions or equations P=0, Q=0, R=0, &c., if we have identically AP+BQ+CR+...=0, where the factors A, B, C, ... are integral functions of the coordinates, and where some one of these factors, say, A, is a constant (or if we please =1), then the system of functions or equations is in involution; or, to speak more accurately, the function or equation P=0 is in involution with the remaining functions or equations Q=0, Q=0

$$AP+BQ+CR+...=0$$
,

then the relation the equations Q=0, R=0, ... imply AP=0, that is. A=0 or else P=0; or, what is the same thing, the relation (Q=0, R=0, ...) is a relation composed of the two relations (A=0, Q=0, R=0, ...) and (P=0, Q=0, R=0, ...). In the k-fold relation expressed by the more than k equations (P=0, Q=0, R=0, ...), selecting any k of these equations which are not in convolution, and uniting thereto any one of the remaining equations, we have a convolution of $\overline{k+1}$ equations; and when a k-fold relation is precisely expressed by means of a system of k or more equations (P=0, Q=0, ...), then every equation Q=0 implied in the given relation, or, what is the same thing, the equation of any one-fold locus passing through the locus given by the k-fold relation is in involution with the equations P=0, Q=0, ..., that is, we have identically Q=AP+BQ+CR+..., A, B, C, ... being integral functions of the coordinates.]

Omal Relation; Order. Article Nos. 37 to 42.

- 37. A k-fold relation may be linear or omal. If k=m, the corresponding locus is a point; if k < m the locus is a k-fold, or (m-k)dimensional omaloid; the expression omaloid used absolutely denotes the onefold or (m-1)dimensional omaloid; the point may be considered as a m-fold omaloid.
- 38. A m-fold relation which is not linear or omal is of necessity composite, composed of a certain number M of m-fold linear or omal relations; viz. the m-fold locus corresponding to the m-fold relation is a point-system of M points, each of which may be considered as given by a separate m-fold linear or omal relation; each which relation is a factor of the original m-fold relation. The given m-fold relation, and the point-system corresponding thereto, are respectively said to be of the order M.
- 39. The order of a point-system of M points is thus =M, but it is of course to be borne in mind that the points may be single or multiple points; and that if the system consists of a point taken α times, another point taken β times, &c., then the number of points and therefore the order M of the system is considered to be $=\alpha+\beta+\ldots$
- 40. If to a given k-fold relation (k < m) we unite an absolutely arbitrary (m-k)fold linear relation, so as to obtain for the aggregate a m-fold relation, then the order M of this m-fold relation (or, what is the same thing, the number M of points in the corresponding

point-system) is said to be the order of the given k-fold relation. The notion of order does not apply to a more than m-fold relation.

41. The foregoing definition of order may be more compendiously expressed as follows: viz.

Given between the m+1 coordinates a relation which is at most m-fold; then if it is not m-fold, join to it an arbitrary linear relation so as to render it m-fold; we have a m-fold relation giving a point-system; and the order of the given relation is equal to the number of points of the point-system.

42. The relation aggregated of two or more given relations, when the notion of order applies to the aggregate relation, that is, when it is not more than m-fold, is of an order equal to the product of the orders of the constituent relations; or, say, the orders of the given relations being μ , μ' , ..., the order of the aggregate relation is $=\mu\mu'$...

Parametric Relations. Article Nos. 43 and 44.

- 43. We have considered so far relations which involve only the coordinates $(x, y, ...)^*$; the coefficients are purely numerical, or, if literal, they are absolute constants, which either do or do not satisfy certain conditions; if they do not, the relation assumed in the first instance to be k-fold is really k-fold, or, as we may express it, the relation is really as well as formally k-fold; if they do satisfy certain relations in virtue whereof the formally k-fold relation is really less than k-fold, say, it is (k-l)fold, then the relation is in fact to be considered ab initio as a (k-l)fold relation: there is no question of a relation being in general k-fold and becoming less than k-fold, or suffering any other modification in its form; and the notion of a more than m-fold relation is in the preceding theory meaningless.
- 44. But a relation between the coordinates (x, y, \ldots) may involve parameters, and so long as these remain arbitrary it may be really as well as formally k-fold; but when the parameters satisfy certain conditions, it may become (k-l)fold, or may suffer some other modification in its form. And we have to consider the theory of a relation between the coordinates (x, y, \ldots) , involving besides parameters which may satisfy certain conditions, or, say simply, a relation involving variable parameters. If the number of the parameters be m', then these parameters may be regarded as the ratios of m' quantities to a remaining $\overline{m'+1}$ th quantity, and the relation may be considered as involving homogeneously the $\overline{m'+1}$ parameters (x', y', \ldots) . And these may, if we please, be regarded as coordinates of a point in their own m'-dimensional space, or we have to consider relations between the $\overline{m+1}$ cordinates (x, y, \ldots) and the $\overline{m'+1}$ (parameters or) coordinates (x', y', \ldots) . It is to be added that a relation may involve distinct sets of parameters, say, we have besides the original set of parameters, a set of $\overline{m''+1}$ parameters (x'', y'', \ldots) involved homogeneously. But this is a generalization the necessity for which has hardly arisen.

^{*} The only exception is ante, No. 5, where, in illustration of the notion of a more than m-fold relation, mention is made of "parameters."

Quantics, Notation, &c. Article Nos. 45 to 55.

45. A homogeneous function of the coordinates (x, y, \ldots) is represented by a notation such as

$$(*(x, y, \ldots)^{(*)})$$

(where (*) indicates the coefficients and (\cdot) the degree), and it is said to be a quantic; and in reference to the quantic the quantities or coordinates (x, y, \ldots) are also termed facients. More generally a quantic involving two or more sets of coordinates, or facients, is represented by the similar notation

$$(*(x, y, \ldots)^{(\cdot)}(x', y', \ldots)^{(\cdot)}\ldots$$

- 46. The quantic is unipartite, bipartite, tripartite, &c., according as the number of sets is one, two, three, &c.; and with respect to any set of coordinates, it is binary, ternary, quaternary, ... (m+1)ary, according as the number of the coordinates is two, three, four, or m+1; and it is linear, quadric, cubic, quartic, ..., according as the degree in regard to the coordinates in question is $1, 2, 3, 4 \ldots$
- 47. A quantic involving two or more sets of coordinates, and linear in regard to each of them, is said to be tantipartite; or, in particular, when there are only two sets, it is said to be lineo-linear; we may even extend the epithet lineo-linear to the case of any number of sets.
 - 48. Instead of the general notation

we may write

$$(*)(x, y, \ldots)^{(-)}(x^{j}, y^{j}, \ldots)^{(+)} \ldots$$

• $(\alpha, \ldots)(x, y, \ldots)^{\mu}(x^{j}, y^{j}, \ldots)^{\mu^{j}}, \ldots,$

where the coefficients are now indicated by (a, \ldots) , and the degrees are μ, μ', \ldots

49. In the cases where the particular values of the coefficients have to be attended to, we write down the entire series of coefficients, or at least refer thereto by the notation (a, \ldots) ; and it is to be understood that the coefficients expressed or referred to are each to be multiplied by the appropriate numerical coefficient, viz. for the term $x^a y^b \dots x'^a y'^b \dots$ this numerical coefficient is

$$=\frac{[\mu]^{\mu}[\mu']^{\mu'}\dots}{[\alpha]^{\alpha}[\beta]^{\beta}\dots[\alpha']^{\alpha'}[\beta']^{\beta'}\dots}$$

50. It is sometimes convenient not to introduce these numerical multipliers, and we then use the notation

or

$$(a, \ldots (x, y, \ldots)^{\mu}(x', y', \ldots)^{\mu'}, \ldots, (a, \ldots (x, y, \ldots 5)^{\mu}(x', y', \ldots 5)^{\mu'}, \ldots)^{\mu'}$$

In particular $(a, b, c)(x, y)^2$, $(a, b, c, d)(x, y)^3$ &c. denote respectively

$$ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$$
,

$$ax^3 + 3bx^2y + 3cxy^2 + dy^3$$
,

&c.;

but
$$(a, b, c(x, y)^3, (a, b, c, d(x, y)^2, &c. denote $ax^2 + bxy + cy^3, ax^3 + bx^2y + cxy^2 + dy^3, &c.,$$$

and so $(a, b, c, f, g, h)(x, y, z)^2$ and $(a, b, c, f, g, h)(x, y, z)^2$ denote respectively $ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + 2fyz + 2qzx + 2hxy$

and

51. To show which are the coefficients that belong to the several terms respectively, it is obviously proper that the quantic should be once written out at full length; thus, in speaking of a ternary cubic function, we say let $U=(a, ... x, y, z)^3$

 $ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + fyz + qzx + hxy.$

$$= (a, b, c, f, g, h, i, j, k, l)(x, y, z)^{3}$$

$$= ax^{3} + by^{3} + cz^{3}$$

$$+ 3(fy^{2}z + gz^{2}x + hx^{2}y + lyz^{2} + jzx^{2} + kxy^{2})$$

$$+ 6lxyz.$$

and the like in other cases.

52. A onefold relation between the coordinates is expressible by means of an equation of the form

$$(*(x, y, \ldots)) = 0.$$

- 53. The expression "an equation" used without explanation may be taken to mean an equation of the form in question, viz. the equation obtained by putting a quantic equal to zero; the quantic is said to be the nilfactum of the equation. We may consequently say simply that a onefold relation between the coordinates is always expressible by an equation.
- 54. It is frequently convenient to denote the quantic or nilfactum by a single letter, and to use a locution such as "the equation $U=(*\chi x, y...)^{(..)}=0$," which really means that the single letter U stands for the quantic $(*X, y, ...)^{(\cdot)}$, so that we are afterwards at liberty to write U=0 as an abbreviated expression for $(*x, y, ...)^{\mu}=0$. We may also speak of the equation or function U=0, meaning thereby the equation U=0, or the function U.
- 55. A k-fold relation between the coordinates is (as has been shown) equivalent to a system of k or more one fold relations; each of these is expressible by an equation U=0, and the k-fold relation is thus expressible by a system of k or more such equations. Representing by ((U)) the system of functions which are the nilfacta of these equations respectively, the k-fold relations may be represented thus, ((U))=0; or more completely, the relation being k-fold, and the number of equations being =s, by the notation

$$((\mathbf{U})s)(k\text{-fold}) = 0.$$

We may also speak of the system or relation ((U))=0, meaning thereby the system of functions ((U)), or the relation ((U))=0.

Resultant, Discriminant, &c. Article Nos. 56 to 62.

- 56. In the case k > m, a given k-fold relation between the m+1 coordinates (x, y, \ldots) and the parameters (x', y', \ldots) leads to a (k-m)-fold relation between the parameters. This is termed the resultant relation of the given k-fold relation, or when the additional specification is necessary, the resultant relation obtained by elimination of the coordinates (x, y, \ldots) .
- 57. Consider a k-fold relation between the m+1 coordinates (x, y, \ldots) and the m+1 coordinates (x', y', \ldots) . If k > m, then, considering the (x, y, \ldots) as coordinates and the (x', y', \ldots) as parameters, we have corresponding to the given relation a k-fold locus in the m-space; and so if k > m', then, considering the (x', y', \ldots) as coordinates, but the (x, y, \ldots) as parameters, we have corresponding to the given relation a k-fold locus in the m'-space.
- 58. If k > m, but if the (k-m) fold resultant relation is satisfied, then the given k-fold relation becomes a m-fold linear relation between the coordinates (x, y, \ldots) , and is consequently satisfied by a single set of values of the coordinates. Hence, considering the given k-fold relation as implying the (k-m) fold resultant relation, the k-fold relation will represent a single point in the m-space, say, the common point.
- 59. A m-fold relation, or the locus, or point-system thereby represented, may have a double or nodal point, viz. two of the points of the point-system may be coincident. More generally a k-fold relation $(k \Rightarrow m)$, or the locus thereby represented, may have a double or nodal point; for let the relation if less than m-fold be made m-fold by adjoining to it a linear (m-k)fold relation satisfied by the coordinates of the point in question but otherwise arbitrary, then, if the point in question be a double or nodal point of the m-fold relation, or of the point-system thereby represented, the point is said to be a double or nodal point of the original k-fold relation, or of the locus thereby represented.
- 60. A given k-fold relation $(k \gg m)$ between the m+1 coordinates, or the locus thereby represented, has not in general a nodal point. But if the relation involve the m'+1 parameters (x', y', \ldots) , then, if a certain one fold relation be satisfied between the parameters, there will be a nodal point. The one fold relation between the parameters is the discriminant relation of the given k-fold relation.
- 61. In the case in question, k > m, the discriminant relation is the resultant relation of a (m+1) fold relation which is the aggregate of the given k-fold relation with a certain relation called the *Jacobian relation*, or when the distinction is required, the *Jacobian relation* in regard to the (x, y, \ldots) .
- 62. Consider a k-fold relation $(k \gg m, \gg m')$ between the $\overline{m+1}$ coordinates (x, y, \ldots) and the $\overline{m'+1}$ coordinates (x', y', \ldots) . It has been seen that to a given set of values of

the (x', y', \ldots) or, say, to a given point in the m'-space, there corresponds a k-fold locus in the m-space, and that to a given set of values of the (x, y, \ldots) , or to a given point in the m-space, there corresponds a k-fold locus in the m'-space. The k-fold locus in the m'-space may have a nodal point; this will be the case if there is satisfied between the (x, y, \ldots) a certain one-fold relation, the discriminant relation of the given k-fold relation in regard to the (x', y', \ldots) . This one-fold relation represents in the m-space a one-fold locus, the *envelope* of the k-fold loci in the m-space corresponding to the several points of the m'-space. The property of the envelope is that to each point thereof there corresponds in the m'-space a k-fold locus having a nodal point.

Consecutive Points; Tangent Omals. Article Nos. 63-69.

- 63. As the notions of proximity and remoteness have been thus far altogether ignored, it seems necessary to make the following
- Postulate. We may conceive a point consecutive (or indefinitely near) to a given point. 64. If the coordinates of the given point arc (x, y, \ldots) , those of the consecutive point may be assumed to be $(x + \delta x, y + \delta y, \ldots)$, where $\delta x, \delta y, \ldots$ are indefinitely small in regard to (x, y, \ldots) .
- 65. It may be remarked that, taking the coordinates to be $(x+X, y+Y, \ldots)$, there is no obligation to have (X, Y, \ldots) indefinitely small; in fact whatever the magnitudes of these quantities are, if only $X:Y:\ldots=x:y:\ldots$, then the point $(x+X,y+Y,\ldots)$ will be the very same with the original point, and it is therefore clear that a consecutive point may be represented in the same manner with magnitudes, however large, of X, Y, \ldots . But we may assume them indefinitely small, that is, the ratios $x+\delta x:y+\delta y,\ldots$, where $\delta x, \delta y,\ldots$ are indefinitely small in regard to (x,y,\ldots) , will represent any set of ratios indefinitely near to the ratios $(x:y,\ldots)$.

The foregoing quantities $(\delta x, \delta y, ...)$ are termed the increments.

66. Consider a k-fold relation between the m+1 coordinates (x, y, \ldots) . k > m; the increments $(\delta x, \delta y, \ldots)$ are connected by a linear k-fold relation.

The linear k-fold relation is satisfied if we assume the increments proportional to the coordinates—this is, in fact, assuming that the point remains unaltered. We may write $(\delta x, \delta y, \ldots) = (x, y, \ldots)$, since in such an equation only the ratios are attended to. But it may be preferable to write $(\delta x, \delta y, \ldots) = \lambda(x, y, \ldots)$. In particular if k = m, then the increments are connected by a linear m-fold relation; that is, the ratio of the increments is uniquely determined; and as the relation is satisfied by taking the increments proportional to the coordinates, it is clear that the values which the linear m-fold relation gives for the increments are in fact proportional to the coordinates: viz. there is not in this case any consecutive point.

67. Considering the k-fold relation as belonging to a k-fold locus in the m-space, so that (x, y, \ldots) are the coordinates of a point on this locus, then if in the linear k-fold relation between the increments these increments are replaced by the coordinates (x, y, \ldots) of a point in the m-space, then considering the original coordinates (x, y, \ldots) as para-

meters, the locus of the point (x, y, \ldots) is a k-fold omal locus: it is to be observed that, by what precedes, the linear k-fold relation is satisfied by writing therein the values $x:y,\ldots=x:y,\ldots$, that is, the k-fold omal locus passes through the original point (x,y,\ldots) ; the k-fold omal locus is said to be the *tangent-omal* of the original k-fold locus at the (point x,y,\ldots), which point is said to be the *point of contact*.

- 68. If in the original k-fold locus we replace (x, y, \ldots) by (x, y, \ldots) , and combine therewith the k-fold linear relation, we have between the coordinates (x, y, \ldots) a 2k-fold relation (containing as parameters the coordinates (x, y, \ldots)); these parameters satisfy the original k-fold relation, and in virtue hereof the 2k-fold relation (whether 2k is or is not greater than m) is satisfied by the values $x, y, \ldots = x : y : \ldots$; and not only so, but the point in question is a nodal or double point on the 2k-fold locus. It also follows that the tangent-omal locus, considering in the k-fold linear relation (x, y, \ldots) as parameters satisfying the original k-fold relation, has for its envelope the k-fold locus.
- 69. We thus arrive at the notion of the double generation of a k-fold locus, viz. such locus is the locus of the points, or, say, of the ineunt-points thereof; and it is also the envelope of the tangent-omals thereof. We have thus a theory of duality; I do not at present attempt to develope the theory, but it is necessary to refer to it, in order to remark that this theory is essential to the systematic development of a m-dimensional geometry; the original classification of loci as onefold, twofold, $\dots (m-1)$ fold is incomplete, and must be supplemented with the loci reciprocally connected with these loci respectively. And moreover the theory of the singularities of a locus can only be systematically established by means of the same theory of duality; the singularities in regard to the ineunt-point must be treated of in connexion with the singularities in regard to the tangent-omal. These theories (that is, the classification of loci, and the establishment and discussion of the singularities of each kind of locus), vast as their extent is, should in the logical order precede that which for other reasons it may be expedient next to consider, the theory of Transformation, as depending on relations involving simultaneously the m+1 coordinates (x, y, ...) and the m+1 coordinates $(x', y', \ldots).$

V. On Remains of a large extinct Lama (Palauchenia magna, Ow.) from Quaternary Deposits in the Valley of Mexico. By Professor Owen, F.R.S. &c.:

Received March 22,-Read April 22, 1869.

In the second of Dr. Lund's communications to the Danish Academy of Sciences, entitled "Survey of the extinct species of Mammalia which inhabited the Highlands of tropical Brazil previously to the last Geological Revolution," he includes amongst the Ruminantia two kinds of Camelidæ, observing:—"Of the genus Camelus I possess the remains of two species, one exceeding a horse in size, the other a little less. To which of the two subgroups of this genus the fossils belong, that is, whether to the modern inhabitant of the warm regions of the old world, Camelus, Ill., or to that now found in the chain of the Andes, Auchenia, Ill., my insufficient means of comparison will not allow me to decide"*.

Professor Pictet, in his comprehensive 'Traité de Paléontologie,' refers the fossils so indicated by Lund to the genus *Auchenia*, but without, apparently, any additional facts or evidence to guide him to this decision †.

Professor DE BLAINVILLE, in the Fasciculus of his 'Ostéographie' relating to the genus Camelus, remarks:—

"Parmi les pièces fossiles déjà assez nombreuses provenant du Brésil, que nous possédons dans les collections du Muséum, je n'en ai encore rencontré aucune qui puisse être rapportée aux Lamas, et je ne vois pas que dans ses Mémoires, publiés dans les 'Actes de l'Académie Royale des Sciences de Copenhague,' M. Lund ait fait connaître, soit par des descriptions, soit par des figures, les pièces qui ont servi de base à ces assertions; elles n'en ont pas moins été reprises cependant dans toutes les compilations paléontologiques" (p. 123).

I may remark that M. Lund does not commit himself to any assertion of the particular genus of *Camelidæ* to which his fossils belonged, whatever parts he might have obtained from the caves at the date of the Memoir above alluded to.

In his later communication to the Danish Academy, of November 1844, published in the twelfth volume of the Transactions above quoted, there appears in the list, p. 86, "No. 12, Auchenia;" but all that is subsequently added upon this subject is as follows:—

MDCCCLXX.

Det Kongelige Danske Videnskabernes Selskabs Naturvidens. og Mathem. Afhandlinger, 1838. (Translated and published in the 'Magazine of Natural History,' by the Rev. W. Bilton, M.A., 1840, New Series, p. 1.)
 + "Les Lamas (Auchenia, Ill.) paraissent avoir habité l'Amérique méridionale pendant l'époque diluvienne, comme de nos jours. M. Lund en a trouvé deux espèces dans les cavernes du Brésil; l'un d'elles surpassait le cheval par sa taille."—Svo Ed. 1853, tome i. p. 345.

"The remains of this genus were most numerous in this Cavern ('Lapa d'Anna Felicia'), and showed evidences of six individuals, mostly young animals"*.

Professor Gervais, in the Anatomical Part or Appendix to Count Castelnau's Expedition to the central parts of South America†, refers to the genus Auchenia some fossil bones of the feet found by Mr. Weddell in deposits at Tarija, in Bolivia, associated with Mastodon and other extinct species. They exceeded in size those of the largest Lama (Auchenia lama), being intermediate in size between that and the Camel. M. Gervais observes that it may be, perhaps, the species said by Lund "to exceed a horse in size"; he figures the fragmentary fossils as belonging to an Auchenia Weddellii.

More decisive evidences of Auchenia from the deposits at Tarija were afforded by fossil teeth. The first of these is a part of the upper jaw with the four chief molars ("portant encore les quatre paires de molaires principales pour chaque côte," Gervais, ut suprà, p. 41), having a longitudinal extent nearly the same as that in the Lama. (This fossil is not figured, nor are the dimensions of the teeth given.) Next are mentioned portions of mandibles "with the four molars in place." These are figured of half the natural size §.

The longitudinal extent of the series is 85 millims. (=3" 4"), while that in a large Lama in the Museum of Comparative Anatomy in the Jardin des Plantes is 75 millims. (=2" 11").

In a specimen of Auchenia lama before me, the longitudinal extent of the four lower grinders is 3 inches, or 76 millims. The anterior molar $(=p \ 4)$ of the fossil is stronger ('plus forte') than its correspondent in the living Lamas, and its anterior fold is much more marked. These fossils, with an astragalus and calcaneum, are referred to Auchenia Castelnaudii, Gerv.

A fragment of the right ramus of the mandible with the molar m 2 in place and the alveoli of m 1 and p 4, inferior in size to that of Auchenia Castelnaudii, is indicative of an animal less than the domestic Lama but greater than the Vicugna, and it is referred, with a tibia which reproduces that of an Auchenia by its forms \parallel , to the Auchenia intermedia, Gerv.

To the evidences of extinct Camelidæ in the tertiaries and post-tertiaries of North America, for which science is indebted to Professor Leidy, I shall refer in the sequel.

^{* &}quot;Levningerne af denne Slægt hörte til de tatrigere i denne Hule og antydede vel sex Individer, hvoraf de fleste unge Dyr."—Op. cit. 12 Deel (1846) p. 89.

[†] Expédition dans les parties centrales de l'Amérique du Sud, &c., sous la direction du Comte Francis de Castelnau: 'Anatomie,' par M. Paul Gervais, &c., 4to, 1855, p. 41.

^{‡ &}quot;L'animal qui a laissé ces différents ossements était trop supérieur en dimensions aux Lamas actuels pour que l'on suppose qu'il a pu être de la même espèce qu'eux, et il ne me paraît pas douteux que l'examen de nouveaux débris montrera entre eux et lui de nouvelles différences; c'est peut-être cette espèce ou une peu différente par les dimensions que M. Lund a comparé au Cheval. Elle approchait du Chameau sous le même rapport, mais sans être cependant aussi grande, et elle tenaît le milieu entre lui et le Paco ou Guanaco."

[§] Op. cit. plate 10. figs. 1 & 2.

[|] Op. cit. p. 43.

Professor Burmeister states that M. Bravard has deposited in the Public Museum of Buenos Ayres part of a mandible with the three posterior molars, which seemed identical with those of Auchenia intermedia, Gerv.* No other fossil evidence of an Auchenia had come to Professor Burmeister's knowledge in 1867.

In that year (1867) I was favoured by receiving from Don Antonio del Castillo, Mining Engineer of Mexico, through the kind intermedium of R. T. C. Middleton, Esquested. Sec. to Her Majesty's Legation, Mexico, photographs and casts of six of the cervice vertebræ, and photographs of the lower molar series and canines of an Auchenia, much exceeding in size any remains suggesting an animal intermediate between a Lama and a Camel. Without knowing the degree in which the fossil Cameline remains from the Brazilian cavern "exceeded a horse in size," one cannot judge of the difference or resemblance in that character between Lund's fossil and those about to be described; but the probability is in favour of Professor Gervais's estimate, as exemplified in his Auchenia Weddellii. According thereto the extinct species of Lama from Mexico must greatly exceed in size any of which we have had previous indications. The evidences above specified were found by Don Antonio del Castillo, in or beneath volcanic tufa, in the valley of Mexico, associated with remains of Elephas and Mastodon.

Don Antonio del Castillo informs me that "the teeth lay, when exposed, in their natural position; but much of the jaw had crumbled or dissolved away after entombment."

In that position his photographs of the inside view, and of an oblique upper and outside view were taken, and with these I received admeasurements of the several teeth in millimeters.

The teeth consist of the series of grinders, in number five, not four as in *Camelus* and *Auchenia*, also of a minute caniniform premolar rising about halfway in the long diastema between the molar series and the canine; this tooth was likewise present, small, compressed, subrecurved. Of the incisors I have received no information.

Concluding that they existed in the number common to the Camelidæ, the dental formula of the mandibular ramus, in the present fossil, would be:—i3, c1, p3, m3 =10 (Plate IV. fig. 3). The series of five molars (ib. figs. 1 & 2) includes p3, p4, m1, m2, m3; the advanced rudimental premolar may be p1, fig. $3\uparrow$; then, with a shorter interval, comes the canine, c.

It is rare to find in any Auchenia, still more rare in Camelus, the lower penultimate

^{*} G. Buemeister, M. & Phil. D. Anales del Museo Público de Buenos Aires, 4to (Entrega Quarta), 1867, p. 234.

[†] The decomposed state of the jaw photographed makes the precise position of this rudimental tooth somewhat uncertain; but of its existence in the alveolar part of the long diastema there is no doubt.

[[]I regret that the political troubles in Mexico, followed by the withdrawal of our Legation, and an anarchical condition of the Capital, suspended my relations with the accomplished discoverer of the fossils described in the present paper.—February 1870.]

premolar $(p\ 3)$ retained after $m\ 3$ has risen into place. The only example of Auchenia (an A. vicugna) in which I have observed this condition I figured, on that account, in my 'Odontography,' plate 133. fig. 2. The proportions of the retained $p\ 3$ in the great fossil Lama resemble those in that Auchenia vicugna, but the functional and commonly retained last premolar $(p\ 4)$ is relatively larger in Palauchenia (compare figs. 3, Palauchenia, and 4, Auchenia vicugna, both reduced to $\frac{9}{5}$, nat. size, in Plate IV.).

A caniniform premolar is commonly present in the lower jaw of the Camel and Dromedary in the long diastema between the retained last functional premolar (p 4) and the canine: I have not observed such premolar in any Auchenia, nor is any mention of such made by Cuvier or De Blainville $(op.\ cit.\ p.\ 95)$. In the lower jaw of an Auchenia vicugna in the British Museum $(675\ a)$, there is a small hard tuberosity on the alveolar border, a little way behind the canine, which may indicate the former existence of a rudiment of a premolar (Plate IV. fig. 4, p 1,?) answering to that developed in Camelus.

In *Palauchenia* the rudimental caniniform premolar (ib. fig. 3, p1) seems to be situated as in *Camelus*, but is relatively much smaller than is the caniniform premolar (p1 or p2) in that genus.

The penultimate premolar (Plate IV. figs. 1, 2, 3, p 3) is a longish, slender, straight, obtusely pointed cone, rising in contact with p 4, but not attaining the level of the grinding-surface; though small (see Table of Dimensions, p. 69) it is relatively larger than its homologue, the exceptionally developed rudiment, in the *Vicugna* (ib. fig. 4, p 3), and it may be therefore inferred to have been more constantly developed and present in *Palauchenia*.

What is more certain is the larger proportional size of the last or functional premolar (ib. ib. p4) in Palauchenia than in Auchenia, the fossil in that respect more resembling Camelus, but with a larger size and difference of form of the tooth in question. Camelus the fore end of p4 is narrow, the outer surface curving inward to meet the inner one at a ridge which forms the fore part of that surface. In Palauchenia the fore part of p 4 is as thick or broad as the back part, and is flattened,—a modification which adds to the probability of the constancy of p 3 in the grinding-series of Palauchenia. In Camelus p 4 has a posterior portion or lobule marked off by an external and an internal longitudinal or vertical groove, and the corresponding part of the grinding-surface shows, after moderate attrition, a distinct small island of enamel. One cannot help recognizing this hind part as the rudimental homologue of the second lobe in the true molars. There is a slight indication of the outer posterior groove in Palauchenia (ib. figs. 1 & 3, p4), but no corresponding inner one, and no distinct posterior islet of enamel. One long slightly curved fold (Plate IV. fig. 1, p 4) penetrates the grinding-surface, and the tooth represents, as in Auchenia and the true Ruminants, the half, or a single lobe, of the true molars.

These (Plate IV. figs. 1, 2, 3, m 1-3) adhere to the type in $Camelid\alpha$, with minor modifications resembling those in Auchenia. The outer sides of the lobes (ib. figs. 1 & 3) are

not subangular prominences as in *Camelus*, but are convex as in *Auchenia*, yet in a markedly minor degree; and, concurrently, the worn edge of parietal enamel is more even, rises less angularly, than in existing *Camelidæ*. The small anterior lobule ("filet verticale," Cuviee) is present in the penultimate and last molars, as in *Auchenia*, but is relatively less, and is indicated only on the outer side of the tooth (ib. fig. 1, m 2, x, and m 3, x). The third or posterior lobule of m 3 (ib. z) is relatively less developed than in either *Auchenia* or *Camelus*.

The canine, 1 inch 1 line in length of crown, 6 lines in fore-and-aft breadth, is compressed, recurved, and retains more of the shape and proportions of that tooth in *Auchenia* than in *Camelus*.

The following are dimensions of the series of grinders and of the individual teeth of Palauchenia magna:—

Teeth, Lower jaw.	Palauchenia.	Camel.	Lama.
Length of series of p 3-m 3 p 3. Antero-posterior breadth of base p 4. Antero-posterior breadth * Transverse breadth * Length of crown† m 1. Antero-posterior breadth Transverse breadth Length of crown; m 2. Antero-posterior breadth Transverse breadth Length of crown m 3. Antero-posterior breadth Transverse breadth Length of crown m 3. Antero-posterior breadth Transverse breadth Length of crown transverse breadth Length of crown	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	in. lines. 6 9 1 0 0 7 1 2 1 6 0 9 1 3 1 11 0 9 1 4 2 4 0 9 1 5	in. lines. 3 0 0 5½ 0 2 0 6 0 7 0 5‡ 0 5 0 9 0 6 1 0½ 0 5 0 7

Cervical Vertebra. Plates V., VI., VII., and Plate IV. figs. 5 & 6 (reduced view).

With the decayed portions of mandible and the teeth above described were found parts of the skeleton, of which I have been favoured by Don Antonio with plaster-casts and photographs of six vertebræ. They are more or less mutilated, but sufficiently entire to show that they are the six consecutive vertebræ of the neck succeeding the atlas, and of one and the same quadruped (Plate IV. fig. 6, 2 to 7).

These cervical vertebræ present the character of the intraneural vertebrarterial canal characteristic of the Camelidæ among existing Ungulates; and, as this character is only known among extinct species in the perissodactyle genus Macrauchenia, the field of comparison is restricted, and the results confirm the inference, from juxtaposition of the fossils, that the vertebræ in question belong to the same animal as the teeth above described.

^{*} Across the middle of the grinding-surface.

⁺ To the origin of the roots.

[#] Across the middle of the anterior lobe.

An oblique upper view, one-fourth the natural size, of the second to the seventh cervical vertebræ inclusive, coarticulated, is given in Plate IV. fig. 6; an oblique under view of the third and fourth cervicals, coarticulated, is given, similarly reduced, at fig. 5. Figures of three of the more characteristic vertebræ are given, of the natural size, with the answerable ones in Auchenia and Camelus, in Plates V. & VI., and alone in Plate VII.

The axis vertebra (Plate IV. fig. 6, *, Plate V. fig. 1) wants the major part of the odontoid process, o, the right diapophysis, the end of the left one (Plate V. fig. 1, d), and the left postzygapophysis (restored in ib. fig. 1, from the right side at z'). This vertebra yields an entire length of 8 inches, the breadth anteriorly is 4 inches, the breadth of the posterior surface of the centrum is 2 inches 5 lines; with the odontoid complete the length of this vertebra would be nearly 9 inches.

The vertebrarterial canal commences within the anterior half of the neural canal, and emerges at the lower and lateral part of the fore end of the centrum within the exit canal (e, e') of the second cervical nerve, near the confluence of the odontoid process; a forward continuation of the almost subsided ridge from the diapophysis (d) divides the nerve-outlet into an upper issue (e) for the dorsal, and a lower issue (e') for the sternal divisions of that nerve, near the latter of which outlets the arterial canal opens, being concealed from outer view by the bony bridge.

Now this is precisely the condition of the nervous and arterial foramina in the vertebra dentata of Auchenia (Plate V. fig. 2, e, e'). In Camelus (ib. fig. 3) the dividing bridge is wanting; the antero-lateral part of the centrum of the second cervical, at its confluence with the odontoid, presents a large longitudinally elliptic depression, e, into the hind part of which opens the vertebrarterial canal, and into the fore part the wider nerve-foramen. The part of the neurapophysis anterior to this is narrower in Camelus, relatively much narrower than in Auchenia, with which in this respect Palauchenia agrees. In the second cervical of Palauchenia the hypapophysial ridge commences at the middle of the centrum, gradually deepening backward, and rather abruptly expanding into an obtuse subelongate tuberosity (ib. fig. 1, hy) reaching the posterior articular surface of the centrum. In this character Palauchenia agrees with Auchenia (ib. fig. 2, hy); in Camelus the hypapophysis (ib. fig. 3, hy) expands posteriorly and divides into a pair of tuberosities. The bridge dividing the upper and lower nerve-outlets is continued backwards, in Palauchenia, into the angle dividing the lower lateral from the upper lateral surfaces of the vertebra, and this obtuse ridge or angle is gradually produced outward to form the long but low diapophysis, d. In Camelus the lower border of the elliptic depression (Plate V. fig. 3, e) is produced, sharpened, and continued backward into the diapophysis (ib. d).

The neural spine (n.s.) in *Palauchenia* is a long low ridge, expanding posteriorly into a largish irregularly rough surface, which seems to have been simple or subbifid as in *Auchenia*; it is certainly not so abruptly expanded, nor is it so distinctly bituberculate as in *Camelus* (the contour of the neural spine of which is indicated by the dotted line in fig. 3, to n.s.).

The postzygapophyses are small in Palauchenia (Plate V. fig. 1, z'), showing similar proportions to those in Auchenia (fig. 2, z'); in Camelus (fig. 3, z') they are more abruptly expanded and, as it were, pedunculate. From the outer side of the postzygapophysis a low ridge (fig. 1, r) extends obliquely downward and forward to the fore part of the diapophysis; in Auchenia this ridge is directed toward the upper nerve-outlet (fig. 2, e), and subsides before it attains thereto; in Camelus (fig. 3) the ridge is wanting. The loftier and stronger neural arch and spine of the second cervical in Camelus (fig. 3, n.s.) give it proportions more like those of ordinary Ruminants; in the longer and more slender form of the vertebra Palauchenia resembles Auchenia.

In an old Lama I have seen a pair of sharp longitudinal ridges (fig. 2, s) at the under part of the second cervical centrum, midway between the beginnings of the hypapophysis (hy) and the diapophysis (d); a low ridge on each side the beginning of the hypapophysis indicates the same relation to muscular attachments in Palauchenia: there is no trace of this character in Camelus.

The third cervical vertebra of Palauchenia (Plate IV. figs. 5 & 6, 2, and Plate VI. fig. 1) lacks, accidentally, the hind half of the neural arch with the postzygapophysis and the right pleurapophysis; sufficient, however, remains to well test the degree of its correspondence, respectively, with the same vertebra in Auchenia (Plate VI. fig. 2) and in Camelus (ib. fig. 3). In these existing genera the contrast and conformity respectively with the fossil, in the proportions of the third cervical, are greater than that in the second, the Camel's vertebra assuming more breadth and height in relation to its length. Palauchenia strikingly resembles the Auchenian type in the general shape and proportions of the third cervical. The length of the centrum is 7 inches 3 lines; the vertical dimension at the ends of the pleurapophyses (pl) is 3 inches 8 lines: in Camelus the length of the centrum is 6 inches 9 lines; the vertical dimension at the ends of the pleurapophyses (pl) is 5 inches 6 lines; as this is the place of greatest vertical diameter of the third cervical in both Camel and Lama, the mutilation of the fossil vertebra does not affect the application of this comparative admeasurement. The third cervical of a large Lama (ib. fig. 2) yields 4 inches 6 lines, and 2 inches 3 lines, in the above dimensions.

The fore part of the centrum is convex in *Palauchenia* in the degree it presents in *Auchenia*, and is less convex than in *Camelus*; in each of these the ball does not fit into a corresponding cup at the back of the second cervical centrum, but works in one contributed chiefly by the intervertebral concentric ligamentous substance. In the flatness of the hind surface of the centrum *Palauchenia* agrees with *Auchenia*; in *Camelus* it is convex at the periphery, slightly depressed at the centre.

The hypapophysial ridge (Plate IV. fig. 5, hy, & Plate VI. fig. 1, hy) commences in *Palauchenia* more in advance than in *Auchenia* (fig. 2, hy), which otherwise it seems to resemble; but the terminal tuberosity is broken off in the fossil.

The pleurapophysis (Plate VI. fig. 1, pl) resembles in position, direction, and length

that of Auchenia; in Camelus (ib. fig. 3, pl) it is much produced, and is more inclined downward, the pair of these processes bounding a much deeper concavity at the lower half of the vertebra.

Both in Auchenia and Camelus the sharp hind border of the process (pl) is concave, and directly continued backward into the diapophysis, d. In Palauchenia the hind border appears to be less sharp, less concave; and if this be in any way due to abrasion, a more marked difference is plainly inherent; the border, passing backward, subsides on the under part of the centrum; the diapophysial ridge (Plate VI. fig. 1, d) is continued forward 7 lines above the pleurapophysial one, and subsides midway between the pleurapophysis (pl) and the base of the prozygapophysis, z. This process is less expanded at its articular part in Palauchenia (Plate VI. fig. 1, z) than in Camelus (ib. fig. 3, z), and resembles in shape and in the extent of the infero-external strengthening ridge that in Auchenia. The notch between the prozygapophyses is wider in proportion to its depth in Palauchenia and Auchenia than in Camelus; the depression above the base of the process in both existing genera is greater than in Palauchenia.

The diapophysis (d) has a long thickened outer border parallel with its base in *Palauchenia* as in *Auchenia*; in *Camelus* it is more triangular in form, terminating in a thick obtuse apex. The anterior outlet of the neural canal of *Palauchenia* resembles that in *Camelus*, being less elevated than in *Auchenia*.

The succeeding cervical vertebræ of Palauchenia (Plate IV. fig. 6, 4, 5, 6, 7) show the same general modifications as in existing Camelidæ, due, viz. to progressive expansion and shortening of the centrum to the seventh inclusive, to progressive elongation or enlargement of the pleurapophyses to the sixth inclusive, to the development of a pair of parapophyses on this cervical, and to the suppression of par- and pleur-apophyses on the seventh, with the superadded partial articulations (ib. 7, ff) on the hind surface of the centrum for the heads of the first pair of dorsal ribs.

In the minor characteristics differentiating Auchenia from Camelus, Palauchenia agrees with the former; of the instances of which may be noted the following:—the shape and greater relative size of the diapophyses (d) of the fifth cervical, the non-confluence in the sixth cervical (Plate VII.) of the parapophyses (p) with the pleurapophyses (ib. pl), which confluence in Camelus forms a single large deflected plate coextensive with the centrum.

Of modifications peculiar to *Palauchenia*, the thicker, more tuberous and more anteriorly directed pleurapophyses (pl) of the fourth, fifth, and sixth cervicals (Plate IV. fig. 6) are remarkable. In the fourth is repeated the character of the distinction and wide interval between the hind terminal ridge of the pleurapophyses (Plate IV. fig. 5, pl) and the front terminal ridge of the diapophysis (ib. d): in the fifth cervical a wide and deep depression marks this interval, of which there is no trace in the corresponding part of that vertebra in *Auchenia* or *Camelus*. In the sixth cervical the bases of the pleurand par-apophyses (Plate VII. pl, p) coalesce beneath the diapophysis (ib. d) in a degree

which makes a step toward the Cameline modification. The diapophyses are imperforate in the seventh cervical of *Palauchenia*: in that vertebra of the Dromedary's skeleton in the British Museum (673 a) the vertebral artery traverses lengthwise the base of each diapophysis; but in a specimen in the College of Surgeons' Museum (No. 3455) the vertebral arteries do not perforate any part of the vertebra. In both, as in the skeletons of the Camels, Dromedaries, and Lamas at the Jardin des Plantes, where I first (in 1831) observed the fact, the vertebral arteries enter the neural canal of the sixth cenvical and perforate the neurapophyses, emerging forward at the inner side of the base of each prezygapophysis. In the seventh cervical vertebra of a Lama's skeleton in the British Museum, as in the corresponding one of that in the Surgeons' Museum (Catalogue of the Osteology, 4to, 1853, p. 578, No. 3487), the right diapophysis is perforated by the vertebral artery, the left one not.

In size and general shape the cervical vertebræ of *Palauchenia* recall those of *Macrauchenia*, but detailed comparison brings out greater differences than any of those above noted in *Auchenia* and *Camelus*.

The vertebra dentata of *Palauchenia* differs from that of *Macrauchenia** in being more slender, in having a lower neural spine, in the shorter diapophyses, and in the non-bifurcation posteriorly of the hypapophysis.

The third and fourth cervicals of *Palauchenia* differ from those of *Macrauchenia* in the longer, narrower, but thicker and more tuberous pleurapophyses, in the convexity of the anterior surface of the centrum; and this latter character distinguishes the succeeding cervicals from the corresponding vertebræ of *Macrauchenia*, in which that surface is less convex, being nearly flat at the middle part.

Thus, the general result of the comparison of characters of the vertebræ of the neck concurs with that of the dental characters in demonstrating the former existence in America of a Cameline Ruminant as large as the largest variety of living Camel or Dromedary, with closer affinities to the Lamas and Vicugnas, yet with such departures from the dental and osteological characters of Auchenia as seem to justify their indication by the generic or subgeneric term Palauchenia, here proposed for such extinct form of American Cameline quadruped.

^{*} Plate 6 & 7, Fossil Mammalia of the Voyage of the Beagle, 4to, 1860.

Table of Dimensions of the Cervical Vertebræ in Palauchenia, Auchenia, and Camelus.

	Palauchenia.	Auchenia*.	Camelus†.
Second Cervical Vertebra. Length Length of centrum Vertical diameter at highest part of neural spine Transverse diameter of hind end of centrum	7 6	in. lines. 5 3 4 3 2 0 1 2	in. lines. 9 6 7 6 4 8 2 5
Third Cervical Vertebra. Length of centrum. Breadth of hind end of centrum Breadth across diapophyses§	2 6	4 6 1 3 3 0	6 9 2 7 5 3
Fourth Cervical Vertebra. Length Length of centrum. Breadth of hind end of centrum		5 4¶ 4 3 1 4½	7 9 6 7 2 9¶
Fifth Cervical Vertebra. Length Length of centrum Breadth of hind end of centrum Breadth across diapophyses	6 10 3 0	5 0¶ 4 0 1 6 3 1½	7 10¶ 6 6 3 3 5 3
Sixth Cervical Vertebra. Length Length of centrum Length of hind end of centrum Breadth across diapophyses	5 9" 3 4	4 5¶ 3 6 1 7 3 4½	6 10¶ 5 6 3 0 5 0
Seventh Cervical Vertebra. Length of centrum	4 0	2 10 2 1 3 7	5 0 3 9 6 3

Professor Leidy, as was remarked in the preliminary historical sketch of the discovery of fossil Camelines in America, has recorded interesting indications of the extension of the former range of this family of Ruminants northward of Central America.

The first of these indications to which I shall refer relates to the extinct form called "Procamelus."

The species on which the genus is founded is described as follows:-

Procamelus occidentalis, Leidy.—"This genus and species are founded on several fragments of jaws, with teeth, of several individuals of an animal allied to the Camel, and about two-thirds its size. The posterior fragment of a lower jaw presents the same general form as in the corresponding part of the Camel, but is broader at the ramus in relation with its height than in the latter. The posterior coronoid process is well de-

* Full-sized old Auchenia lama.

- † Full-grown large var. of Camelus dromedarius.
- ‡ Including the odontoid process, which is restored according to the proportions of that in Auchenia.
- § These are the only admeasurements which the state of the fossil vertebræ enables me to take for the purpose of comparison.
 - From the fore end of the pleurapophysis to the hind end of the postzygapophysis.
- ¶ From the end of the prozygapophysis to that of the postzygapophysis, the pleurapophyses not extending, as in Palauchenia, in advance of the prozygapophyses.

veloped, and the upper part of the ramus is more strongly depressed externally than in the Lama (Auchenia). The body of the lower jaw is relatively deeper than in the Camel, though not so robust; and the two sides are co-ossified by a comparatively short symphysis.

"Six molar teeth form a closed row in the lower jaw, being two additional to the number in the Camel and Lama. The true molars and the last premolar have nearly the same form as the corresponding teeth of the Camel. The second premolar is a reduced one from that behind it; and the first premolar [p 2] has a laterally compressed ovate crown implanted by two fangs.

"In a small fragment of a lower jaw, in the middle of the hiatus, in advance of the closed row of molars, there is the fang of a tooth which appears to have been a caniniform premolar $[p\ 1]$. The mental foramen is just in advance and below the position of this tooth. A foramen likewise exists before the third premolar $[p\ 4]$ of the closed row of teeth, corresponding to that more posteriorly situated in the Camel and Lama.

"As in the lower jaw, six molar teeth form a closed row in the upper jaw. The true molars, though much mutilated in the specimens under examination, appear to possess the same form as those of the Camel. The last premolar $[p\ 4]$ is also like the corresponding tooth of the latter. The second premolar $[p\ 3]$ is like the first one of the Camel, with the exception that it has the antero-internal fold of its crown as well developed as the posterior fold, which it joins at the base. The first premolar $[p\ 2]$ is like the first one of the series in the Lama, having a trilobate, flattened oval crown.

"T 11 6 1 1			in. lines.
"Length of upper molar series			4 8
Length of lower molar series			4 10
Length of upper true molar series			3 0
Length of lower true molar series			3 5"

(Leidy, 'Proceedings of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia,' March 1858, p. 23.)

The Cameloid fossil from the "probably pliocene freshwater deposits of the Niobrara Valley, Nebraska," is thus shown to be not only of markedly smaller size than the Mexican Palauchenia, but to differ therefrom, as from Auchenia and Camelus, in a more important character, viz. the number of contiguous teeth forming the molar series in both upper and lower jaws. In this respect the Procamelus offers an interesting link in the transition from the cameline to the true Ruminantia, and an additional illustration of an approach to a more generalized type of dentition in a species existing at a tertiary period anterior in time to that in which the remains of Palauchenia were found. The dentition of Palauchenia, in the number of the molar series shown in the fossil from the Mexican post-tertiaries, exemplifies an intermediate step between the dentition of Procamelus, Leidy, and that of the existing Auchenia, Illig.

The second cameline subgenus indicated by the accomplished and assiduous American palæontologist is the "Camelops kansanus, Leidy" (Proc. Acad. Nat. Sc. Philadelphia,

vol. vii. p. 172); it is described as fellows:—"This genus and species are established upon a fragment of the anterior extremity of an upper jaw of an animal of the Camel family, discovered by Mr. Henay Pratten, of New Harmony, Indiana, in the gravel drift of Kansas Territory.

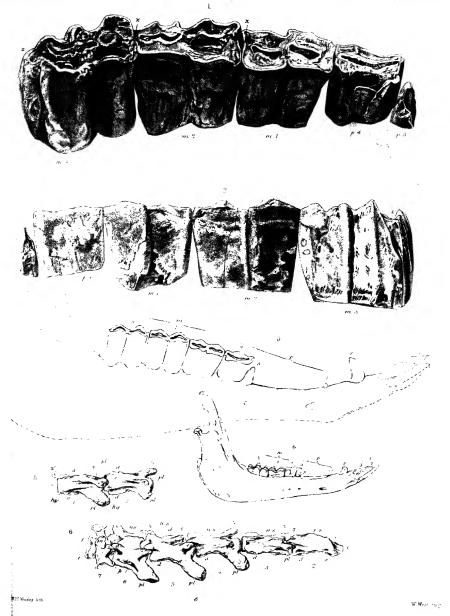
"The specimen consists of portions of the left maxillary and intermaxillary bones, the latter of which contains the fang of a transformed incisor, or functional canine tooth as in the Lama. The intermaxillary bone is of very much more robust proportions than in the Lama or Camel. The inclination of its nasal border approaches more the horizon than in the Lama or Camel, apparently indicating the animal to have possessed a lower and perhaps a longer face than in either of the latter genera. The gingeval border is rugged as in its congeners, and it presents two irregular pits, apparently the alveoli of incisive germs. The fang of the functional canine contained in the intermaxillary bone is laterally compressed, conical, and is an inch and a half in length. From the orifice of its alveolus it is strongly curved upward and backward, nearly on a line parallel with the curved palatal margin of the bone.

"The crown of the tooth was directed downward and outward, and at the base it is ovate in section, with the narrow end posteriorly; it measures six lines and three-fourths wide, and three lines and three-fourths transversely. A small portion of remaining enamel indicates this to have been thin and smooth.

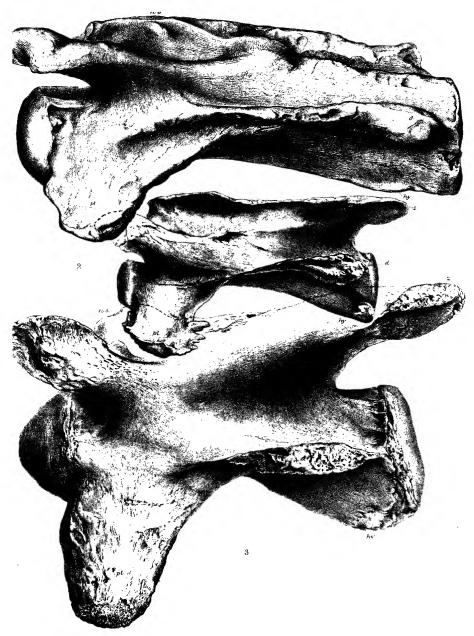
"The small remaining fragment of the maxillary bone attached in the fossil exhibits at its broken margin the portion of an alveolus, situated an inch and three-fourths behind the tooth contained in the intermaxillary bone. It has been about four lines in transverse diameter, apparently had a direction curving downward, forward, and outward from its bottom, and probably accommodated a true canine tooth, although the position is usually far back, a necessary condition, however, in the Camelops from the distance to which the fang of the functional canine tooth extended backward".

From the foregoing account of his materials much remains to be discovered in order to yield the generic and specific characters of Camelops Kansanus, Leidy. It is obvious that the description affords no grounds for identifying them with the Mexican fossils, the subjects of the present memoir. But it is of great interest to have such indications as Professor Leidy has recorded of the geographical extension of Cameloid forms into the Nebraska and Kansas territories of the great northern division of the American Continent, and more especially after Don A. De Castillo's discovery of Cameline remains in a locality of Central America. At the present day, as is well known, this restricted family of Ungulates is represented, in the New World, exclusively by the small Lamas, Pacos, and Vicugnas, wild or domesticated, in South America.

^{*} Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, 2nd Series, vol. iii. 1856, p. 166.







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6 th cervrert , Palauchenia

DESCRIPTION OF THE PLATES.

PLATE IV.

- Fig. 1. Oblique view of the outer and grinding-surfaces of the molar series of teeth, Palauchenia magna, nat. size.
- Fig. 2. Inner view of the same teeth, nat. size.
- Fig. 3. Outer view of mandibular teeth (with mandible and incisors restored) of *Palanchenia magna*, two-fifths of nat. size.
- Fig. 4. Outer view of mandible and mandibular teeth (Auchenia vicugna), two-fifths of nat. size.
- Fig. 5. Oblique under view of the third and fourth cervical vertebræ of *Palauchenia* magna (one-eighth nat. size).
- Fig. 6. Oblique upper view of the second to the seventh cervical vertebræ of *Palauchenia* maqna (one-eighth nat. size).

PLATE V.

- Fig. 1. Side view of vertebra dentata, Palauchenia magna.
- Fig. 2. Side view of vertebra dentata, Auchenia lama.
- Fig. 3. Side view of vertebra dentata, Camelus dromedarius.

PLATE VI.

- Fig. 1. Side of third cervical vertebra, Palauchenia magna.
- Fig. 2. Side of third cervical vertebra, Auchenia lama.
- Fig. 3. Side of third cervical vertebra, Camelus dromedarius.

PLATE VII.

Side view of sixth cervical vertebra, Palauchenia magna.

The figures in Plates V.-VII. are of the nat. size. The letters &c. are explained in the text.

VI. On the Molar Teeth, Lower Jaw, of Macrauchenia patachonica, Ow. By Professor Owen, F.R.S.

Received April 21,-Read June 10, 1869.

The dentition of a Mammal so rare and interesting as the *Macrauchenia* deserves better illustrations than the single reduced view of the lower molars given in 1845*, and the still more reduced figures of both upper and lower teeth lithographed by Bravard*.

The intention to communicate to the Royal Society a description with figures of the natural size of the specimen of mandible and teeth, still unique, in the British Museum, has been deferred in the hope of acquiring from South America other fossil remains, especially the upper jaw and teeth of *Macrauchenia patachonica*; but such fossils have not yet come under my observation. The recently obtained knowledge, however, of the former existence of another large quadruped in America, with cameline characteristics of the cervical vertebræ like those in *Macrauchenia*, coupled with true cameline affinities, as exemplified by the dentition of the lower jaw in *Palauchenia*, induces me no longer to delay the adequate record of the characters which so strikingly distinguish the perissodactyle from the artiodactyle forms of hoofed quadrupeds with the intraneural course of the vertebral arteries in the region of the neck.

The specimen here described formed part of a series of fossils from Buenos Ayres, purchased for the British Museum in 1845. I was requested by Mr. König, the then Keeper of the Department of Mineralogy, to examine and report on that Collection, which chiefly consisted of Megatherian remains, and I was led by the conclusions which I had formed of the pachydermal affinities of the genus *Macrauchenia*, based on bones of the trunk and limbs described in the 'Fossil Mammalia of the Voyage of the Beagle', to recognize the mandibular specimen with teeth as belonging to that genus, and I accordingly figured it as such in the concluding part of my 'Odontography.'

The specimen (Plate VIII. figs. 1-3) consists of the part of the left ramus of the lower jaw of a full-grown individual, with six consecutive grinders, anterior to which the jaw is broken away, as is also the hind end of the ramus about 3 or 4 inches behind the last grinder. The first tooth in place answers to the second premolar (Plate. VIII. figs. 1-3, p 2) of the typical series. It is implanted by two fangs, supporting a lamelliform

^{*} Owen's 'Odontography,' pl. 135. fig. 7, p. 602.

[†] Published by BURMKISTER, in the 'Anales del Museo Público de Buenos Aires,' Entrega Primera, 4to, 1864, pl. 1.

[#] See Owen's 'Memoir on the Megatherium,' 4to, 1860, p. 11.

^{§ 4}to, 1840, pp. 35-56, pls. vi.-xv.

crown, the compression being from side to side, or from within outwards, and the extension of the crown from before backwards. In this direction the crown expands as it rises to an antero-posterior breadth of 30 millims. (=1 inch 2 lines), whence it contracts, rising to a submedian obtuse apical summit. The outer side of the crown is convex from its fore margin to two-thirds of the way back, then becomes concave to a vertical ridge, b, marking off a short posterior tract of the crown which inclines inward and is almost flat. From this tract the continuation of enamel bends abruptly inward and forward (fig. 2, c), rapidly sinking to a mere basal ridge, continued along the inner side of the crown into the similarly bent anterior border of the crown, c. The concavity bounded by those inwardly inflected borders of the crown is divided into two by the prominence of the thickened mid parts (d) of the crown forming its apex, a. The abraded surface of this tooth forms a sinuous tract of dentine, thickest at the middle, thinnest behind (fig. 3, p 2).

The next tooth $(p \ 3)$ resembles $p \ 2$, with increase of thickness, but none of fore-and-aft extent. The facet of the crown behind the outer ridge (fig. 3, b) passes more directly inward, so as to form the posterior part of the crown. The inner wall (c) is more abruptly continued from it, subsiding to the ridge crossing the base of the mid inner convexity (d), to which the anterior inflected fold of enamel (c) is continued. The convexity (d) is broader and rather flattened between the better defined hollows of that surface of the crown. This tooth is implanted by two fangs.

The third tooth (p 4) adds increase of fore-and-aft extent to that of thickness of the crown, and also resembles the succeeding true molars in being divided into two lobes by a vertical indent of the outer surface (fig. 1, p 4) entering the inner mid convexity. fig. 3, d. This gives to the grinding-surface (p 4, fig.3) the form of two consecutive crescents, of which the hinder one is the largest; such being the type of lower grinder common to *Rhinoceros* and *Palarotherium* with this singular South-American Perissodactyle.

The first of the true molars $(m \ 1)$ exemplifies its earlier development and longer usage by having the crown worn down below the convexity and concavities on the inner surface; a broad bilobed tract of dentine shows the outer mid indent, with a remnant of the postinternal cavity (fig. 3, $m \ 1$): the enamel is now reduced to a very thin line along the anterior and inner sides of the crown.

In the penultimate molar (m 2) the sinuous configuration of the inner surface of the crown is preserved, the enamel of the mid convexity rising to form the most prominent part of the grinding-surface (figs. 1 & 2. d). The tooth is increased in all dimensions.

The last molar (m 3), with a fore-and-aft extent of crown of 48 millims. (=1" 10"), preserves the same bilobed type as in *Rhinoceros*, without any trace of a third posterior lobe or 'talon,' as in *Palæotherium*. The lobes have been worn by mastication to a breadth of two or three lines, and as the inner enamel-wall is continued by the inflected and subsiding fore and hind borders to the inner basal ridge, the crescents of the masticating surface have an enamel border only on their outer or convex sides.

Thus Macrauchenia differs from Rhinoceros and Palæotherium in the limitation of

assumption by the premolars of the molar type of grinding-surface to the last of the premolar series, the antecedent premolars retaining the single-lobed crown; from Palæotherium it further differs, as before observed, in the retention by the last molar of the two-lobed structure. In Artiodactyles, and especially the ruminant section, all the premolars have a simpler structure with the smaller size of crown.

From the figures by Bravard we learn that *Macrauchenia*, like many other tertiary mammals, retained the type dentition, viz. i = 3, o = 1, p = 4, m = 3, m = 4, and that, as in *Anoplotherium* and *Dichodon*, the series was unbroken by any notable interval, not any of the teeth having a crown much higher or longer than the rest.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PLATE.

PLATE VIII.

- Fig. 1. Portion of left mandibular ramus with the p 2-m 3 grinders: outside view.
- Fig. 2. do. do. : inside view.
- Fig. 3. Grinding-surface of the teeth. These figures are of the natural size.
- Fig. 4. Entire mandible with the p 3-m 3 grinders, and a restoration of the missing teeth: outside view, reduced view: from Bravard, op. cit.
- Fig. 5. p 3-m 3, inside view; similarly reduced: from Bravard, op. cit.
- Fig. 6. Grinding-surface of second upper molar $(m \ 2)$, right side, restored to the natural size: from Brayard's plate. [The upper molars $(m \ 1, m \ 2)$ of Macrouchenia, as of Nesodon, are penetrated by three folds of enamel on their inner side, which, deepening as they extend, are soon interrupted by wear, and the ends converted into islands. In $m \ 2$ (Plate VIII. fig. 6) the mid fold is of unequal depth and becomes reduced to two islands of enamel (e, h). In $m \ 1$ the island (h) of Brayard's specimen is not shown, but this may be because the tooth is more worn. In $m \ 3$ the insular end of the fold (k) remains beyond the fold, which continues as in $m \ 2$: the mid fold is represented by a single island, and the third fold (d) is short. The outer lobe (f', b) is turned, as usual, in $m \ 3$, so that the surface (f'') looks outward and backward, with concomitant contraction of the hind part of that molar.

The last premolar (p4) is like a small molar, but shows only two enamelislands on its inner half: p3 has a mid indent on the outer side and indications of two shallow folds on the inner side; it has lost breadth, but retains fore-and-aft extent; p2 is still more narrowed transversely, has an even outer surface, and a single fold of enamel on the inner one which runs forward. This fold is represented by a notch in p1. The premolars decrease in breadth, and in a minor degree from before backward, as they approach the canine,—R. O., March 1870.]

VII. On a Group of Varieties of the Muscles of the Human Neck, Shoulder, and Chest, with their transitional Forms and Homologies in the Mammalia. By John Wood, F.R.C.S., Examiner in Anatomy at the University of London; Professor of Surgery in King's College, London, and Surgeon to King's College Hospital. Communicated by Dr. Sharpey, Sec. R.S.

Received June 17,-Read June 17, 1869.

In the 'Proceedings of the Royal Society,' between the years 1864 and 1868 inclusive, were published five series of observations upon variations in Human Myology, made in the Anatomical Rooms of King's College, London. These observations extended over 202 dissected subjects; they were restricted chiefly to the muscles of the head and neck and those acting upon the extremities, and did not include the numerous irregularities which are usually found in those of the back.

From the extensive range of the subject, and the importance of ascertaining as far as possible the statistical frequency of the abnormal forms, there was little opportunity afforded of giving due prominence to many of the specimens which were entitled to special distinction, either from their first appearance in the records of anatomical science, or from their homological importance as transitional forms, or as representatives of muscles hitherto found only in certain classes of animals.

Many others had, indeed, been recorded by the older or more modern writers under various names, as irregularities of the muscle with which they were connected or contiguous. A great number of these, I believe, were mere varieties of the same transitional specimens, and were placed in this series for the first time in their proper relation and true homological significance to each other.

After some years of practical observation and bibliographical research, I have brought together some of the more interesting groups of these muscular varieties in illustration of the working of the law of variation in modifying muscular formations in the human subject; producing, in some instances, muscles which appear at first to be remarkably aberrant from the ordinary human construction, and identical in some with those which have usually been considered as peculiarly animal formations.

From this point of view one of the most interesting groups of muscles is that of the muscles which connect the neck and shoulder. From the variability of the bones of the shoulder-girdle and the dissimilar habits and requirements of the different classes of animals, it is not surprising to meet with a perplexing variety in the different portions of their muscular apparatus; but it is striking to find that a great tendency to the same kind of variability is to be found in the shoulder of Man, in which it exists to an extent which

is only surpassed by that of the muscles of the fore arm. The reason for the latter can, from the variety of the uses and functions of the upper extremity, be better comprehended than in the case of the neck and shoulder, which would seem to demand much less various muscular appliances from a teleological point of view, and their varieties therefore might be considered to have a more decided morphological bearing.

I will first take the varieties of one of those groups which has for its function in the human subject to raise the shoulder-girdle behind and before, and to rotate it on the central axis of the shoulder-blade. In animals, the group draws these bones forwards and upwards, or downwards, and they are usually more movable in them than in Man. In both they also act conversely upon the cephalic extremity, either directly or through the neck-vertebræ. In the lower animals we shall find that the muscles of the group frequently obtain a longer leverage by becoming connected lengthwise, or are even blended with other muscles or portions of muscles acting in the same direction, and so obtain a greater play of motion and an increased power of a more direct kind upon the fore limbs and head.

We find in these muscles some of the best examples of what I have called in my former papers, *lateral* and *longitudinal fission*, and *fusion*, of adjacent muscles acting in the same general direction in regard to the axis of the limb.

The normal muscles constituting this group range from as far back, and as deep, as the *splenii* and *serrati*, through the *rhomboids*, the *trapezius*, and the *levator anguli scapulæ* to the *sterno-cleido mastoideus* of human anatomy.

The abnormal human muscles include those which I have described briefly in various previous publications in the 'Proceedings of the Royal Society' under the names of the occipito-scapular, the levator claviculæ, and the cleido-occipital, reaching as far back as that division of the splenius which has been called by Walther the adjutor splenii, and by Macalister the rhombo-atloid.

Occipito-scapular Muscle.—In the winter of 1866-67 I found in a muscular male subject, on both sides, a muscle extending from the occiput to the base of the scapula, under the trapezius, which I described in the 'Proceedings of the Royal Society,' for May 1867, under the name of the occipito-scapular muscle. It was a distinct ribbon-shaped muscle, three-quarters of an inch wide, nearly a quarter of an inch thick, and 10 inches long (Plate IX. fig. 1, d), attached by a musculo-tendinous origin to the occipital bone on a level with the splenius capitis (h), and directly under the line of junction between the trapezius (T) and a variety of the sterno-cleido-mastoid, which was also present, and which I have named the cleido-occipital (c). Passing downwards and outwards, obliquely across the splenii, and between them and the trapezius, it became inserted by short tendinous fibres, superficial and opposite to the rhomboideus minor (r), into the vertebral border of the scapula opposite the base of the spine, its fibres being more or less blended with those of the rhomboids.

Since that time evidences of the muscle have been sought for in fifty subjects. The nearest formation to the complete muscle was again found, last session, in a muscular

male. It existed on both sides. It was a muscular slip 7 inches long, and a quarter of an inch wide, on the right side, but rather shorter on the left. On both sides its lower attachment was identical with that first found, viz. to the base of the scapula opposite the spine (Plate IX. fig. 2, d, d). On the right side its upper attachment was to the transverse process of the atlas, along with and superficial to the first digitation of the splenius colli (h'); on the left side it ended above in the fascia covering the splenius capitis (h) opposite to the spines of the second and third cervical vertebræ, and was continued onward to the occiput by the intervention of this fascia only. On the right side there coexisted another peculiar muscular slip, having a similar action upon the scapula (0); it lay beneath the rhomboids, arising by a fascial tendon from the spinous process of the seventh cervical vertebra, and passed downwards and outwards in a muscular band, 7 inches long by half an inch wide, crossing obliquely between the fibres of the serratus posticus superior (s) and the rhomboideus major (R), and was inserted by a short tendon into the lower angle of the scapula, opposite the origin of the teres major. It was absent on the left side. The muscle lay almost entirely parallel to the occipito-scapular, with which a simple upward displacement would bring it into exact coaptation, and the action of their fibres was identical, viz. that of rotation of the scapula upon its axis and elevation of its superior angle.

The next gradation was found in a muscular male subject, on the left side only (Plate IX. fig. 3). It was a fusiform slip of muscle (Δ) attached by a thin falciform aponeurosis to the fascia covering the splenius capitis (h), under cover of a cleido-occipital muscle (c), which coexisted in this subject also. The fusiform belly was $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches long, and was placed parallel and superficial to the outer fibres of the splenius capitis, ending below in a spreading aponeurosis, which was implanted upon the superficial aspect of the serratus posticus superior (s), close to its tendon, and under the rhomboideus major. The rhomboids were also largely developed and united at their contiguous margins by another cross slip, passing from the spinal origin of the major to the scapular insertion of the minor. In the same subject and on the same side were found two other slips, given off from the lower margin of the levator anguli scapulæ (f) from the fourth cervical transverse process. The innermost one (7), the larger, was somewhat fan-shaped, spreading downwards to be inserted, by its inner fibres, into the fascia covering the serratus posticus superior (s) about the second or third rib, and by its outer fibres into the fascia covering the hinder surface of the serratus magnus (S), close to its insertion into the middle of the vertebral border of the scapula. The lesser or outermost slip (s) came off from the border of the muscle like the other, and was inserted wholly into the upper fibres of insertion of the serratus magnus.

A somewhat different formation, having the same general character, was seen in another male subject, on the left side only (Plate IX. fig. 4). Two slips of muscle of about the same size as the foregoing (ϵ and η) were here found. The upper one (η) was attached above, in common with and between the atloid attachments of the splenius colli (h') and the levator anguli scapulæ (f); it lay along the outer border of the

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male. It existed on both sides. It was a muscular slip 7 inches long, and a quarter of an inch wide, on the right side, but rather shorter on the left. On both sides its lower attachment was identical with that first found, viz. to the base of the scapula opposite the spine (Plate IX. fig. 2, d, d). On the right side its upper attachment was to the transverse process of the atlas, along with and superficial to the first digitation of the splenius colli (h'); on the left side it ended above in the fascia covering the splenius capitis (h) opposite to the spines of the second and third cervical vertebræ, and was continued onward to the occiput by the intervention of this fascia only. On the right side there coexisted another peculiar muscular slip, having a similar action upon the scapula (θ) ; it lay beneath the rhomboids, arising by a fascial tendon from the spinous process of the seventh cervical vertebra, and passed downwards and outwards in a muscular band, 7 inches long by half an inch wide, crossing obliquely between the fibres of the serratus posticus superior (s) and the rhomboideus major (R), and was inserted by a short tendon into the lower angle of the scapula, opposite the origin of the teres major. It was absent on the left side. The muscle lay almost entirely parallel to the occipito-scapular, with which a simple upward displacement would bring it into exact coaptation, and the action of their fibres was identical, viz. that of rotation of the scapula upon its axis and elevation of its superior angle.

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A somewhat different formation, having the same general character, was seen in another male subject, on the left side only (Plate IX. fig. 4). Two slips of muscle of about the same size as the foregoing (ϵ and η) were here found. The upper one (η) was attached above, in common with and between the atloid attachments of the splenius colli (h') and the levator anguli scapulæ (f); it lay along the outer border of the

former, and ended below by dividing opposite the last cervical vertebra into two, which were both implanted by separate short tendons into the fascia covering the serratus posticus superior (s), the innermost near the junction of its tendon and fleshy belly. The other was exactly similar to the smaller one (s) described in the last figure, and was inserted, like it, into the serratus magnus close to its insertion into the base of the scapula opposite the spine.

All the abnormal slips of muscle just described were apparently developed in the fascia covering the hinder surfaces of the splenii, levator anguli scapulæ, and serrati muscles. The one marked Δ in fig. 3 had an origin quite similar to that of the occipito-scapular found on the right side in the subject of fig. 2 (d); its insertion, however, took place upon the surface of the serratus posticus superior instead of upon the rhomboid or more superficial muscular layer, which it had, as it were, failed to reach. The other slips (s and η) were directly connected with the scapula through the insertion of the serratus magnus, as was also the slip (s) found in the subject of fig. 4.

In the subject of the next illustration (Plate IX. fig. 5), a muscular male, were found muscular slips (ϵ and η) of a precisely similar character, but connected rather with the front surface of the levator anguli than with the back. The upper and longer one (η) arose with the third digitation of the levator anguli scapulæ, but in front of it, and passed downwards, in front also of the fourth slip of origin of that muscle, as a fusiform muscle about 8 inches long, which was inserted by a falciform tendon into the lower part of the base of the scapula, between the insertions of the rhomboideus major (R) and the serratus magnus (S). The other slip (ϵ) was similar in its upper attachment to that marked with the same letter in the previous figures, but was inserted below into the serratus posticus superior (ϵ), instead of into the serratus magnus, as was the case with the others.

In two other subjects, both females, were found also slips of muscle connected with and lying upon the front surface of the levator anguli scapulæ. In one it was found on the right side only, arising from the third cervical transverse process, as a fusiform muscle, which was inserted into the hinder surface of the upper digitation of the serratus magnus near its scapular attachment. In the other, the subject of fig. 6 (Plate IX.), the muscular slip (n) arose from the second cervical transverse process, was placed in front of the levator anguli scapulæ, and was inserted also in front of the upper digitation of the serratus magnus, upon the fascia covering which its tendon was lost in the axillary space; it was likewise fusiform in shape and about 6 inches in length.

I have now followed these curious transitional slips of muscle in the changes of their upper attachment from the superior curved line of the occipital bone, through the splenius capitis and colli, to the hinder surface, and, at last, to the front surface of the vertebral origin of the levator anguli scapulæ.

At their lower attachments we can trace them also from the base of the scapula, through the insertion of the *rhomboids* and the *serratus posticus superior*, to the back surface, and, at last, to the front surface of the *serratus magnus*. Here we link on a human muscular abnormality, also connected with the front surface of the *levator anguli*.

scapulæ, viz. the "levator claviculæ," which we shall find, when we discuss its homologues in the lower animals, to have something of a correlation with the occipito-scapular, placed at the opposite pole from which we started.

Before following this direction, however, I will notice a further indication of transmutation in the direction of the splenius muscle, i. e. backward, which may be considered to have some relation to the formation of the occipito-scapular in the human subject. In Haller's 'Disputationum Anatomicarum Selectionum' (1733, vol. vi. p. 589), F. WALTHER gives a description of a muscle connected with the splenii, under the name of the "musculus singularis splenii accessorius" vel "adjutor splenii." This muscle corresponds entirely with a variety I have found in four male subjects out of 41, and in three females out of 29, in a total of 70, in the years 1866, 1867, and 1868 (given in the 'Proceedings of the Royal Society' of these years respectively). One of the females was the subject of fig. 7 (Plate IX.), in whom the variety was found as a flat, ribbon-shaped muscle (q), lying upon and parallel with the fibres of the splenius colli. Its upper attachment was placed upon the transverse process of the atlas, between the tendons of the levator anguli (f) and splenius colli (h'). It was hardly to be distinguished at this place, without dissection, from the fibres of insertion of the latter muscle; but, as it descended, it became more distinct and differentiated, and was finally separated from both the splenii by the intervention of the tendon of the serratus posticus superior (s). It was about 6 to 7 inches long, by 1/2 an inch wide, passed under the rhomboideus minor muscle (r), and ended below in spreading tendinous fibres, which became blended, partly with that of the origin of the rhomboideus major (R), and partly with that of the serratus. The muscle has been described also by Mr. A. MACALISTER under the name of the "rhombo-atloid" (Notes on Muscular Anomalies in Human Anatomy, in the 'Proceedings of the Royal Irish Academy, April 23rd, 1866).

This formation, I believe, indicates the first loosening or differentiation of the *splenius* muscle in the direction of the formation of an *occipito-scapular* in the human subject. We shall find that, in the Mole, the whole of the *splenius* may become attached to the scapula (see Plate X. fig. 11, h).

In the subject of fig. 7 was also found a triple insertion and an extended origin of the levator anguli scapulæ. The cervical digitations of the muscle were continued down as low as the sixth transverse process. The three lowest digitations were inserted by two separate slips (F), the uppermost (larger) into the base of the scapula opposite the supraspinous fossa; and the lowest (smaller), conjointly with and superficial to the tendon of the rhomboideus minor (r), into the triangular commencement of the scapular spine. This formation indicates an approach to that found in some of the Carnivora, in whom the muscle corresponding to the human levator anguli scapulæ is inserted into the scapular spine close to the occipito-scapular (see Plate X. figs. 14 & 15, f, f).

I next proceed to describe a highly important human muscular variety, the *levator claviculae*, to which I have before referred, the formation of which the slips previously described and shown in figs. 5 & 6 evidently foreshadow, and which, it may be said,

constitutes the opposite pole of the line of departure here traced from the occipito-scapular muscle.

Levator claviculæ Muscle.—In my paper read before the Royal Society in 1864, I furnished a description and drawings of levator claviculæ muscle which I had found in two male subjects, on both sides.

In Man it usually assumes, as in animals, the form of a flat ribbon-shaped muscle. It is commonly about an inch to an inch and a half wide, arising fleshy by two or more digitations from the first and second, second and third, or third and fourth cervical transverse processes, in common with and in front of the origin of the levator anguli scapulæ.

Crossing the posterior triangle (Plate IX. fig. 8, e) obliquely downwards, outwards, and forwards, it is inserted tendino-fleshy into the middle or outer third of the clavicle to the median side of, or behind, the fibres of insertion of the trapezius (T). We have found this muscle in 4 males out of 131, and in 1 female out of 71, in a total number of 202 subjects. In three it was on both sides, and in two on the left side only. In one other male subject it was found to arise from the third cervical transverse process on the left side only, and, just failing to reach the clavicle, was inserted into the fascia immediately behind it, covering the axillary surface of the upper digitation of the serratus magnus muscle and the plexus of nerves lying upon it. This gives an average of about 3 per cent. in which this muscle has been found; in half on both sides, and in the other half on the left side only.

In looking up the bibliography of this subject, I have found that in 1813 W. G. Kelch described that he had seen, on the right side of a male subject, in whom both the omohyoids were wanting, a slip of muscle, a quarter of an inch wide, attached above to the sixth cervical transverse process, and below to the back edge of the clavicle near the acromial end (Beiträge zur pathologischen Anatomie, Berlin, 1813, xxiv. S. 32). This is quoted by F. G. Theile, who also describes that he saw on the right side of a male a muscle, I inch wide, attached above to the fourth and fifth cervical transverse processes, between the rectus capitis anticus major and the posterior scalenus, and below to the middle of the clavicle at its upper border. It was considered by him as a variety of the anterior scalenus muscle (Traité de Myologie, in Sömmerring's Encyclopédie Anatomique, traduit par J. L. Jourdain, 1843, p. 153). In 1846 Macwhinnie described this muscle as a variety of the levator anguli scapulæ, arising from the first cervical transverse process, and inserted, in one case, into the outer end of the clavicle with the trapezius, and, in a second instance, into the middle of the clavicle close to the sterno-cleido-mastoid (London Medical Gazette, January 30th, 1846, p. 194).

In 1847 Professor W. Gruber, of St. Petersburg, described a muscle attached above to the second cervical transverse process, and below to the middle of the hinder border of the clavicle (in two subjects out of 40), as a variety of the trapezius (Vier Abhandlungen, S. 22). This observation is quoted by Henle in his last edition of the Handbuch (Muskellehre, S. 110) with the remark that it is doubtful whether it is to be con-

sidered as a variety of the omo-hyoid, levator anguli scapulæ, or scalenus anticus; and implying apparently that it may be referred to the sterno-cleido-mastoideus.

In 1866 Mr. A. MACALISTER describes it, in a spare female subject, as inserted under the *trapezius* into the outer third of the clavicle (op. cit. p. 7).

Besides the foregoing fully formed specimens of the muscle, we have repeatedly found imperfect slips from the cervical attachments of the levator anguli and anterior or posterior scalenus, which were inserted below into the axillary fascia behind the clavicle. Through these slips we travel towards and meet with those which I have before described in connexion with the levator anguli and serratus magnus, and thus we have a series of transitional forms intermediate between the levator claviculæ and the occipito-scapular muscles. Specimens of this kind have also been recorded by J. F. Meckel, viz. a slip passing from the levator anguli to the second rib, where it was connected with the serratus magnus. He adduces it as an index of the more complete blending of these muscles in the lower animals (Archiv, viii. S. 585, and Muskellehre, 1816, Bd. ii. S. 402). He also quotes J. C. Rosenmüller for a specimen in which a slip of muscle passed from the transverse process of the atlas to the serratus magnus (De nonnullis musculorum corp. hum. varietatibus, Leipzig, 1814, S. 5). Kelch saw, in a female, a tripartite division of the levator anguli scapulæ, the middle slip sending off from its hinder border an insertion into the scapulo-thoracic fascia (op. cit. xxv. S. 33).

More recently, Mr. Flower and Dr. Murie found, in a Bushwoman, a slip proceeding from the *levator anguli scapulæ* to the axillary surface of the *serratus magnus*, which they considered to be an indication of the *levator claviculæ* muscle (Journal of Anatomy and Physiology, No. 2, May 1867, p. 199).

The first beginning of a differentiation of the fibres of the levator anguli scapulæ we have not unfrequently found as a double muscle. It is thus figured in Cuvier and Laurillard's plates of the muscles of the Negro, the anterior division being described as the homologue of the "acromio-trachélien" of the lower animals. Macalister has also found this muscle double (op. cit.).

Cleido-occipital Muscle.—Under this name I described, in a paper published in the 'Proceedings of the Royal Society' in June 1866, an abnormal human muscle placed along the hinder border of the sterno- and cleido-mastoids, from both of which it is separated by a more or less wide areolar interval, and sometimes joining, above or below, the fibres of the trapezius. Its width is from half an inch to an inch and a half, most commonly being about three quarters of an inch. It is made up of parallel muscular fibres, attached above to the superior curved line of the occipital bone by a thin muscular aponeurotic termination between the occipital attachments of the sterno-mastoid and trapezius muscles. Below it is connected with the back edge of the clavicle about its middle third, extending, when large, nearly or quite to the insertion of the trapezius, diminishing much the size of, and crossing or covering in the posterior triangular space (Plate IX. fig. 9, c). It is distinguished from the cleido-mastoid by its superficial position, by the more oblique and more backward direction of its fibres, and by its attachment to

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the superior curved line of the occipital bone, as well as by a more or less marked areolar interval between the two. The fibres of the latter muscle are directed from the clavicle upwards and forwards in such a manner as to become, in the upper part of the neck, entirely covered by those of the sterno-mastoid, which form here the entire posterior border of the compound human sterno-cleido-mastoid muscle, to the exclusion of those of the cleido-mastoid, which pass more deeply and are directed more forwards to the mastoid process.

We have found the cleido-occipital muscle more or less developed in 37 subjects out of 102, viz. in 27 out of 68 males, and in 10 out of 34 females. In 34 it was found on both sides, and in 3 on one side only. In two instances in which it was found on one side only, there existed on the opposite side a levator claviculæ muscle, showing a sort of correlation between the two formations. In two instances the muscle was double, or divided into two distinct portions. In two more male subjects the formation was so peculiar as to merit a more detailed description; one of them was the subject of fig. 29, Plate XI. Besides the ordinary clavicular attachment (c), which was connected with the bone near to that of the trapezius (T), so as almost entirely to cover the posterior triangle, there arose from the sternal end of the clavicle, external to and partially separate from the sternal origin of the sterno-mastoid, a strong flattish tendon giving origin to a considerable bundle of parallel muscular fibres (c'). These crossing upward and backward, superficial to the origin of the cleido-mastoid proper (b), joined, about the middle of the neck, the fibres from the ordinary origin (c), and were inserted with and anterior to them into the superior curved line of the occipital bone. The appearance of a completely double sterno-cleido-mastoid was thus given to the subject, bearing a striking resemblance to the formation of the homologous muscles in the striped Hvæna, Polecat, Genette, Coati, and Marmot, as figured in Cuvier and Laurillard's plates of these animals.

The muscular variety which I have distinguished by the name of *cleido-occipital* has been observed and described by various writers as an occasional variety of the *sterno-cleido-mastoid* or *trapezius* muscles.

It is mentioned by SÖMMERRING (De Corp. Hum. Fabric. p. 112), and was found by KELCH coexistent with a double *sterno-cleido-mastoid*, the whole possibly having been a formation similar to that last described (Beiträge, xxi. p. 31).

MECKEL describes it, both in the human subject and in animals. In the latter he states that it sometimes joins, below, the anterior fibres of the deltoid (cephalo-humeral); and in his description of Ateles and Magot, and some other animals, he seems to have looked upon it as a variety of the acromio-trachélien (levator claviculæ), and through this arrangement he appears, moreover, to have connected the latter with the trapezius rather than with the levator anguli scapulæ, as indicated by Cuvier (Meckel, De Duplicitate Monstrosa, pp. 40, 41, and Muskellehre, p. 475).

THEILE describes an oblique slip of muscle, three lines wide and one thick, attached to the superior curved line of the occipital bone, partly under the trapezius, and spreading

out below so as to cover the clavicular fibres of the sterno-cleido-mastoid and to join, finally, its sternal origin. This also may have been the double-headed variety of the cleido-occipital just described (Encyclop. Anatom. pp. 163, 164, 165).

Macwhinnie mentions the clavicular origin of the sterno-cleido-mastoid as occasionally forming two distinct muscles, and sometimes blending with the fibres of the trapezius (op. cit. p. 186).

HALLETT found, in three subjects, a muscle arising from the clavicle, separate from the sterno-cleido-mastoid and the trapezius respectively. He also found a muscular slip joining the trapezius at the occiput, and the sterno-cleido-mastoid at the clavicle, and also more frequently (1 in 16 cases) meeting the clavicular insertion of the trapezius (Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal, 1846, p. 6). R. Wagner discovered a similar slip, joining the trapezius at the clavicular insertion, on both sides of a female subject (HEUSINGER'S Zeitschrift, Bd. iii. S. 337). GRUBER found a slip of muscle arising from the clavicle, completely separate from the sterno-cleido-mastoid and trapezius, in 2 subjects out of 40, and with a separation less complete in 1 out of every 3 subjects. In 7 out of 70 subjects this observer found the same muscle joined above more or less with the trapezius (Vier Abhandlungen, S. 16, 17, 18). Henle mentions it as an occasional abnormality of the sterno-cleido-mastoid (Muskellehre, S. 110), and Quain as a variety of the trapezius (Arteries, pl. 25). FLOWER and MURIE found a good specimen of the formation on both sides in the Bushwoman. It was best marked on the left side, and consisted of a long narrowish band of fibres attached above to the occiput half an inch from the trapezius. It crossed the posterior triangle, and was inserted into the clavicle an inch from its outer end (Journal of Anatomy and Physiology, May 1867, pp. 197, 198).

In connexion with this muscle we must place also, I believe, the occasional remarkable formation of the clavicular fibres of the trapezius described as an occasional human variety by QUAIN, MACWHINNIE, HALLETT, and GRUBER (op. cit.), and in my own paper in the Royal Society's 'Proceedings' for 1867 (No. 93, p. 522). In these cases, which have a considerable resemblance to each other, the anterior border and clavicular insertion of the trapezius appears to be prolonged over the posterior triangle, so as more or less completely to cover it, and to become connected with the origin of the cleido-mastoid. Opposite the middle of the clavicle a tendinous arch, thrown over the middle and sternal divisions of the descending cervical nerves and over the external jugular vein, affords attachment to the median portion of the muscular fibres in place of the clavicle itself. In the instances I have myself met with, an areolar interval more or less marked has usually existed between this irregular extension of the insertion and the normal fibres of the trapezius. The superficial insertion into the aponeurotic arch, formed in the deep fascia of the part, is connected below to the fascia of the arm, and indicates an homology with the brachial prolongation of the levator humeri of the lower animals. The intimate connexion of this abnormal part with the trapezius indicates its relation to those formations in which the so-called "trapezius clavicularis" of the Carnivora and Rodents is entirely absorbed in the formation of the great "cephalo-humeral" muscle.

In connexion with this abnormality I would also place, as a lateral displacement, the variety recorded by R. Wagner as an irregularity of the *trapezius*, viz. an accessory muscle passing from near the mastoid process to the acromion process under the lastnamed muscle (op. cit. S. 337).

COMPARATIVE ANATOMY.—If we now turn to the homologies of the foregoing muscular varieties in the Mammalia, we shall find a correlation between these several developments sufficiently striking and suggestive.

It was asserted by MECKEL, against the opinion of CUVIER (Anat. Comp. vol. vi. p. 236), that in the lower mammalia the cervical portion of the serratus magnus was the most usual homological representative of the lower divisions of the levator anguli scapulæ of Man and the higher Quadrumana; extending usually as high only as the transverse process of the third cervical vertebra, it becomes, in most of these animals, continuous with the upper border of the thoracic serratus, at the last cervical transverse process. In the Badger and Weasel among the Carnivora, the Rabbit and Surmulot among the Rodents, and in the Bonnet-Monkey of the lower Quadrumana, I have found an areolar separation of the cervical from the thoracic part more decided than that between the other digitations, a division which becomes in the higher Quadrumana still more evident.

Occipito-scapular Muscle.—In 1775 Dr. James Douglass described in the Dog, under the name of the "levator scapulæ minor vel posterior," a muscle separate from but in the same layer as the rhomboids, arising from the occiput near its crest, superficial to the splenius, and inserted in connexion with and above the rhomboideus minor into the upper angle of the vertebral border of the scapula. Under the name of the "levator scapula" major vel anterior," he also described, in the same animal, a ribbon-shaped muscle, arising from the first cervical transverse process, and inserted into the scapular spine near its outer end. In these two muscles we have evidently the homologues of the opposite extremes of the human varieties before described, and represented by the fully formed occipito-scapular and levator claviculae. The homologue of the former was described by J. F. Meckel, under the name of the rhomboide antérieur, as a separate muscle, reaching from the angle of the scapula to the occiput, in the Magot and Lemurs, and forming one sheet with the rhomboids in the Coati. In the Insectivora he describes. it in the Mole and Hedgehog as a separate muscle, and in the Armadillo as joined with the rhomboids. In the Carnivora he describes it in the Marten, Potto, Bear, Hyæna, Badger, Dog, and Cat, usually united to the other rhomboids and reaching as far as the occiput. In the Rodents he describes it in the Beaver, Porcupine, and Marmot, partially separated from the other rhomboids in the first, but united to them in the two latter; and he also describes it in the latter condition in the Didelphis marsupialis (Anat. Comp. vol. v.). In Cuvier, Laurillard, and Mercier's magnificent 'Receuil de Planches de Myologie' (Anat. Comparée, Paris, 1855), this muscle is figured under the name of the "rhomboïde de la tête" as large and separate from the other rhomboids in Callithrix, Magot, Papio Mormon, Coati, Sajou, and Marmoset. In the Lion it is represented as continuous with the other rhomboids; but it constitutes a separate muscle in the Panther,

Black Bear, Coati, Badger, Genette, Polecat, Dog, and Otter. It is also figured in the Hedgehog, Mole, and Armadillo. In the Orycteropus it is noted as the rhomboïde du cou. It figures also in the Hippopotamus, Peccary, and Pig; in the Hare, Beaver (large), Paca, Agouti, Capybara, Porcupine, Rabbit, and Squirrel; and in the great Kangaroo, Kangaroo-Rats, and Phalangers. Both Cuvier and Meckel also figure it in the Ornithorhynchus. In the Orycteropus capensis the rhomboideus minor is described as reaching to the occipital crest by Humphry (Journ. of Anat. and Phys. May 1868, p. 299) and by J. C. Galton (Trans. Linn. Soc. vol. xxvi. p. 590). The former author also describes the same arrangement in the Seal; and the latter states that, in the Six-banded Armadillo, the occipito-scapular muscle is enormously developed, arising from the whole of the occipital crest, and inserted into the supraspinous fascia, as well as into the upper angle of the scapula (op. cit. p. 525).

It is described by Krause in the Rabbit under the name of the levator anguli scapulæ vel scapulæ minor (Anat. des Kaninchens, Leipzig, 1865, S. 104), and also by Mivart and Murie in the same animal. The latter authors also describe it in the Hyrax capensis as blended with the rhomboids, and in the Hare and Guinea-pig under the name of the occipito-scapular or rhomboideus capitis (Proceedings of the Zoological Society, April 1865, p. 335, and June 1866, p. 393).

In the Echidna hystrix Mivart describes the rhomboideus cervicalis as reaching up to the occiput (Trans. Linn. Soc. vol. xxv. 1866). I have myself found this muscle in the Bonnet-Monkey, separate from the other rhomboids (Plate X. fig. 12, dd), and also in the Hedgehog (Plate XI. fig. 22, d), Mole (Plate X. fig. 11, d). In the last it constitutes a very distinct ribbon-shaped muscle (d), lying upon and parallel to the splenius (h), in no way connected with the other rhomboids, which are very feeble and almost wanting, nor with the trapezius (T), which overlies it. I have also found it in the Dog, Cat (Plate XI. fig. 23, d), Badger (Plate X. fig. 14, d), Weasel (fig. 15, d), Rabbit (fig. 16, d), Squirrel (fig. 18, d), and Norway Rat (fig. 19, d), in which last animal it is of a great size. This muscle has thus a very extensive range of existence in the Mammalia, and is represented by many specimens in most of the families. A very striking instance of modification in the attachment and uses of a muscle, having a suggestive resemblance to the differentiation of the splenius in the human variety before described (rhombo-atloid), is found in the lower attachment of this muscle in the Mole (see fig. 11, h). In this animal the splenius is a large, thick, and powerful muscle, lying immediately under the occipito-scapular, attached extensively in front to the occiput, and tapering off behind, where it is attached, not to the spinous processes of the vertebræ, but to the end of the scapula, which are united to each other across the spine by an interscapular ligament, upon the superficial surface of which are developed a few transverse fibres, feebly representing the rhomboids. The whole apparatus is freely moveable backwards and forwards upon the spine. According to Meckel, there is developed in the cervical and dorsal supraspinous ligaments in this situation an ossicle or cartilage, but this I was unable to find in the specimen which I examined and from which the drawing was taken.

The *splenius* is hereby transformed from a spinal muscle into one acting upon the combined fore legs and head, moving freely over the spine, and it becomes a notable accessory force in aid of the action of digging and burrowing with the snout and fore paws.

The muscle just described seems to correspond to that described by Meckel as a very strong rhomboid, attached to the moveable ossicle. The muscle upon which it rests, however, seems to me to be clearly the complexus, with the large trachelo-mastoid muscle to its outer side, constituting the only muscle layer which intervenes between the muscle in question and the semispinalis and multifidus system of fibres, with the obliqui and recti of the occiput. The direction of the fibres of this muscular layer corresponds with that of the complexus, viz. from the transverse processes forwards and a little inwards to the median line of the occiput, where the two fellow muscles are closely placed together at their insertion.

Levator claviculæ Muscle.—Synonyms: The "levator scapulæ major vel anterior" of Douglass and Burmeister; the "omo-" or "acromio-trachélien" of Cuvier and Meckel; the acromio-basilar of Vicq d'Azyr; the clavio-trachélien of Church; the basio-humeralis of Krause; the Kopf-Arm-Muskel of Peyer; the transverso-scapulaire of Strauss-Durck-Heim; the omo-atlanticus of Haughton; and the cervico-humeral of Humphry.

The homologies of this muscle in the Mammalia form too extensive a subject, and one presenting too many complex modifications, to be fully entered into in this paper. I will content myself with indicating the principal changes which occur in it, selecting such specimens as may throw light upon the developments I have found in the human subject.

In by far the greater majority of animals the muscle arises from the transverse process of the atlas singly. In some it extends also to that of the axis; and it seems to represent that which in Man and the higher Simiadæ are the two upper digitations of the levator anguli scapulæ. In the Rodents and Pachyderms, however, we shall find that, by becoming amalgamated by longitudinal and lateral fusion with the recti capitis, it may be attached to the lateral or basilar processes of the occipital bone.

In the Gorilla, Chimpanzee, and Orang it is always present, arising from one or two of the upper cervical transverse processes, and inserted into the clavicle external to its centre. This insertion into the clavicle, which is found, as we have seen, in the human subject, and has given to it the name of levator claviculæ, becomes in the lower Quadrumana, by external transposition, shifted to the upper border of the acromion process of the scapula (omo- or acromio-trachélien). Its clavicular attachment, however, reappears, according to Mivart and Murie, in the Nycticebus tardigradus or Slow Loris (Proc. Zool. Soc. 1865, p. 243), and is found universally in the Bats, attached to the outer end of the clavicle close up to the insertion of the trapezius. In the former animal, as described by the above authors, the muscle arises singly from the transverse process of the atlas, the levator anguli scapulæ arising as far forwards as that of the axis, as well as from all the cervical transverse process behind that point. The single origin prevails also in most of the lower Quadrumana. In the Papio Mormon and Magot it arises from the axis as well as the atlas (Cuvier and Laurillard, plates 29 & 30). In these Apes, and in Ateles and Callithrix also, its scapular insertion is covered by the front fibres of

the trapezius. I have found the same arrangement in the Bonnet-Monkey (Plate X. fig. 12, e). It is also the case, according to MIVART, in Cercopithecus sabæus (Proc. Zool. Soc. Jan. 10, 1865).

In Ateles and Magot Meckel describes this muscle as double, having apparently connected it with the development of a cleido-occipital muscle, which is also found in these animals. This part of the supposed double muscle Meckel refers to the trapezius, with which he thus connects the muscle under consideration rather than with the levator anguli scapulæ, as Cuvier does.

In the Coati, Marmoset, Slender Loris, and Lemur macaco, according to CUVIER, the acromio-trachélien passes superficially over and across the front fibres of insertion of the trapezius to be inserted into the superficial aspect of the acromion process, constituting apparently a form transitional to that of its insertion in the Carnivora and Rodents, where we usually find a metacromial process developed downwards from the outer end of the spine of the scapula (see Plate X. figs. 15 & 16, z). By this means is provided a longer leverage for the muscle, enabling it to rotate powerfully the shoulder and anterior extremity outwards from the trunk, around the long axis of the scapula. In the Hedgehog (fig. 18, e) the muscle is inserted superficial to the trapezius into the acromial process. It is totally absent in the Mole. In the Six-banded Armadillo (Dasypus sexcinctus) Mr. Galton describes an acromio-basilar muscle taking origin from the lateral ridge of the supraoccipital bone and inserted into the metacromion process of the scapula (Trans. Linn. Soc. vol. xxvi. p. 527). This slip of muscle is, however, considered by Cuvier (plate 259. fig. 2) and by Meckel (op. cit. p. 480) as the cervical portion of the trapezius, with which its origin from the supraoccipital bone would certainly ally it, while its insertion into a metacromial process would not be incompatible therewith. In the Orycteropus capensis, Professor Humphry describes this muscle, under the name of the cervico-humeral, as arising from the transverse process of the atlas, and inserted superficial to the trapezius into the spine of the scapula. In the Tamandua it reaches over and far below the scapular spine and trapezius. It is not figured in Cuvier and Laurillard's plates of the Sloth, Anteater, or Armadillo. In those of the Lion and Panther it is represented as large, wide, and covered at its insertion by the trapezius; but in the Bear, Striped Hyæna, Coati, Badger, Polecat, Genette, Dog, and Cat it passes superficial to the insertion of the trapezius to the metacromion process. In the Cat I have found it to become at its origin partially blended with the rectus capitis anticus major, and thus to arise, as we find it also in the Rabbit, partly from the basilar process of the cranium (see Plate XI. fig. 23, ee, and Plate X. fig. 13, e). In the Otter, Haughton describes the muscle as subdivided into two parts, one attached to the outer or lower, and the other to the inner or upper end of the scapular spine (Proc. Royal Irish Acad. vol. x. pt. iv.). In the Seal it is also, according to HUMPHRY, divided into two parts, one passing to the outer tuberosity of the humerus with the trapezius (thus extending still further its range of action as a swimming-muscle), while the other overlaps the supraspinatus, and is inserted into the angle of the scapula (op. cit. p. 299).

This remarkable bifurcation of the muscle I have myself found both in the Badger and the Weasel (Plate X. figs. 14 & 15, e, f); it bears significantly upon the connexion I have endeavoured to establish in this paper between the anterior and posterior levators of the scapula. In the latter of these animals the muscle arises by a single origin from the transverse process of the atlas; in the former it extends as far as that of the axis, as is sometimes the case in the Dog. Almost directly two flat, ribbon-like, diverging muscles are formed, one passing backwards and downwards to be inserted, superficial to the trapezius, into the metacromial process, and the other backwards and upwards, to join at insertion to that of the occipito-scapular at the angle of the scapula. Both the muscles are inserted also into the supraspinous fascia, and into the vertebral end of the scapular spine itself, under cover of the trapezius. The last-described division of this double muscle is evidently the homologue of the first or atloid digitation of the human levator anguli; it has the same origin, course, and insertion, and forms in the same manner a link of connexion between the origin of the anterior levator scapular or acromio-trachélien and the insertion of the posterior or occipito-scapular muscle. This link is rendered more continuous by the abnormal human varieties which I have described in the earlier part of this paper.

A perplexing resemblance to the bifurcation above described is seen in the arrangement of this muscle in the Rabbit (Plate X. fig. 16, e b); this will, however, be found, on closer inspection, to be essentially different in its nature. In this animal, as well as in the Guinea-pig, the origin of the muscle becomes blended (as we have seen to be the case in the Cat) with the fibres of the rectus capitis anticus major, contributing to form a thick muscular mass between the pharynx and the vertebræ (see fig. 13, u, v, b, and e). The outer part of the apparently double muscle is attached also to the transverse process of the atlas (1), while some appear to be connected with the rectus minor (v); but the greater and inner portion arises directly from the basilar process of the cranium, close and external to the insertion of the rectus major (u), and near the line of suture between it and the mastoid process and the large tympanic protuberance. The two parts composing the muscular mass are easily separated along a loose areolar interval extending quite up to the base of the skull; they pass together along the neck, crossed by the sterno-mastoid (fig. 16, a) and cleido-occipital (c) muscles, and then separate in the posterior triangle,—the upper or hinder one (e) to be inserted, superficial to the trapezius, into the prolonged metacromial process (z), and the other to join the tendinous intersection connected with front of the rudimentary clavicle (x) at its outer half, where it assists in forming the great cephalo-humeral muscle. The first of the two muscles is described by Krause (op. cit. S. 103) as the "levator scapulæ major," and the latter as the "basio-humeralis," referring this erroneously as a homologue to the "transversoscapulaire" of Strauss-Dürckheim, -- an homologue which applies more correctly to the former muscle.

This curious shifting of the origins and insertion of these muscles has given rise to the perplexing multiplication of names which meets us in the literature of this subject. It

has also, as I shall endeavour to prove, led to the concealment of the real homologies of the last-described muscle in the Rabbit, as well as of those of the muscle marked c in the figure, which has been confounded with it. The muscle which is called by Krause the basio-humeralis, presents, I believe, strong grounds for referring its homology to the cleido-mastoid of human anatomy. First, its lower attachment to the clavicle and its participation in the formation of the levator humeri is upon this supposition at once explained. Its deep position in relation to the muscles marked a and c, viz. the sternomastoid and cleido-occinital, is also more in accordance with this supposition. Its origin from the basilar process takes place close to the suture between it and the mastoid bone, some of its fibres even arising from the latter. Its deep displacement may in fact be referred to the great development of the tympanic element necessary to support the enormous ears of the animal, at the expense of the occipital and mastoid development, which are small and compressed. A comparison of the relative position of the three muscles marked a, b, and c in the figures of the Rabbit, with those of the Hedgehog (Plate XI. fig. 22), and especially with those of its congeners, the Squirrel (Plate X. fig. 18), and the Norway Rat (fig. 19 and fig. 26, Plate XI.), will render the resemblance of the muscles herein treated as homologous, more plain than any description, and will tend to remove the confusion into which, by want of precision, the names of these muscles have been plunged. The relation of the muscle to the true levator claviculæ (e) is thus one of juxtaposition merely, and not one of derivation. A further test of the accuracy of viewing this muscle as a cleido-mastoid is to be found in the arrangement of the group in the Ruminants as compared with the Solidungulata.

In the fawn of a Fallow Deer dissected by my friend and former pupil Mr. Nettle-SHIP, from whose sketch figure 20 (Plate XI.) was taken, it will be seen that the levator humeri (be) (cephalo-humeral) is made up of two parts (b and e) exactly corresponding to those of the Rabbit just described. They are marked with corresponding figures. posterior or superior portion, or that corresponding to the acromio-trachélien or levator claviculæ (e), is the larger, and arises from the transverse process of the atlas. anterior or inferior portion (b) joins the fibres of the rectus capitis anticus major (u), and is attached with it to the basilar process of the cranium. The two join about the middle of the neck to form one compound muscle (b, e), which passing over the shoulder without any clavicular "inscription," is inserted with the fibres of the pectoralis transbersus (major) into the humerus just above the outer condyle. As the portion e correponds clearly to the muscle which in the Rodents and Carnivora is attached to the metacromial process (and which MIVART and MURIE found in the Hare and Rabbit to send some fibres down to the humerus), so the portion b is clearly the homologue of that which I have considered in the Rabbit as the cleido-mastoid, blending in the same way with the rectus capitis anticus major. To enhance the value of this proof, the sternomastoid (maxillary) (a) in the fawn sends off a slip (a'') to join, and thus to claim connexion with, its usual colleague, the cleido-mastoid, in its new connexions with the rectus capitis anticus major.

A further light is thrown upon this arrangement by that found in the Donkey, of which the succeeding figure (Plate XI. fig. 21) was drawn from a sketch made also from nature by Mr. NETTLESHIP. In this animal the acromio-trachélien (levator claviculæ) (ee) arises by four digitations from the four upper cervical transverse processes, and is a far larger muscle than the cleido-mastoid, much resembling in appearance the origin of the human levator anguli scapula. The cleido-mastoid portion (b), however, arises, not in common with the rectus capitis anticus (u) from the basilar process, but with the rectus lateralis (w) from the paramastoid process just behind the ear, as in most of the Mammalia, and clearly asserting its homology with the human cleido-mastoid. The two muscles have exactly the same relation to each other as those of the Fallow Deer, and form, in the same manner, the compound levator humeri muscle (b c). As an evidence of the like tendency to transposition evinced by this group of muscles in the large heavy animals, both long- and short-necked, I may allude to the fact that in the Ass and Horse, as well as in the Camel, Elephant, Hyrax, and most of the Ruminants, the sternomastoid is inserted into the angle of the mandible (hence called sterno-maxillaris vel mandibularis by veterinary anatomists). In the Peccary. Hippopotamus, Pig, and Tapir it is, however, inserted into the mastoid process, with a slip to the transverse process of the atlas in the Hippopotamus.

The question now arises,—What, then, is the homologue of the muscle which has been usually considered by writers on the subject as the cleido-mastoid, viz. that marked c in the figure of the Rabbit (Plate X. fig. 16)? Its superficial position in relation to, and parallelism with the fibres of, the sterno-mastoid (a), its attachment to the ridge of the occipital bone as far as that of the trapezius, its intermediate position here between these two muscles, together with its superficial position at its attachment to the clavicle (x) in relation to the other muscle which I have affiliated to the cleido-mastoid (b), which it assists in forming the compound levator humeri muscle (b c), all lead me to consider it as the representative of the cleido-occipital muscle which I have described as a human variety. A comparison with the same muscle in the Guinea-pig (Plate X. fig. 17, c), and still more in the Squirrel (fig. 18, c) and Norway Rat (Plate XI. fig. 26, c), will render this more clear. In the Guinea-pig the muscle (c) has its cranial attachment to the ridge of the occipital bone, and not to the mastoid, reaching from the insertion of the sterno-mastoid to that of the trapezius. No other muscular fibres, except a few which join it high up from the last-named muscle, and which may represent the true cleido-mastoid, assist it to form the levator humeri (c') in the arm. It is apparently the only muscle from the upper part of the neck or head which is connected with the clavicle (x).

In the crested Agouti (Dasyprocta cristata), MIVART and MURIE found a very similar blending of the two corresponding muscles on the right side (op. cit. p. 391). These authors recognized in this animal the homology of the levator claviculæ muscle, which they describe as arising by a tendon from the basis crani,—one part (the inner) being inserted into the outer end of the clavicle (the cleido-mastoid of this paper), and the

other passing over the shoulder adherent to the trapezius, to help to form the levator humeri muscle at its insertion into the proximal end of the radius. They point out that this part probably led MECKEL to the false homology of considering this muscle to be represented by the anterior part of the trapezius. In the Hare they found that the outer part was inserted into the metacromial process. In the Porcupine, Capybara, and Paca the acromio-basilar is very large, and in them, as well as in the Agouti, Guinea-pig, Squirrel, Norway Rat, and Rat-mole of the Cape, it is placed superficial to the trapezius at its insertion into the acromion process. In the Guinea-pig I have found it to join the rectus capitis anticus major, and to be attached with it to the base of the cranium; in the Squirrel and Norway Rat, however, it arose, in the specimens I have dissected, from the transverse process of the atlas only. Meckel did not seem to recognize it as a separate muscle in the Agouti, Paca, Squirrel, Hamster, or Guinea-pig, appearing to consider it as part of the trapezius. In the Hyrax capensis, according to MURIE and MIVART, it is strong, arising from the transverse process of the atlas, passing over the neck of the scapula, and inserted into the fascia covering the teres minor (Proc. Zool. Soc. April 1865, p. 334). In the Elephant, according to Cuvier and Laurillard's plates, it is large and superficial to the trapezius at its insertion; this is also the case with the Horse and Ass. In the Hippopotamus, Peccary, Pig, and Tapir it is small, and placed at its insertion superficial to, or on a level with, the trapezius.

In the Kangaroo Haughton describes it as very broad, arising from the three upper cervical transverse processes, and inserted into the whole length of the clavicle as well as into the outer third of the scapular spine (op. cit. vol. ix. part 4). Cuvier also describes it as large in the Great Kangaroo, Sarigue, and Phalangers, and inserted under cover of the trapezius, a well-marked and distinct levator anguli scapulæ being also figured as coexistent in the 'Recueil de Planches.'

The levator claviculæ was found by MIVART in the Iguana tuberculata, arising from the transverse process of the atlas, and inserted into the acromial end of the clavicle and front margin of the scapula (Proc. Zool. Soc. June 1867, p. 780).

Cleido-occipital Muscle.—Second cleido-mastoid of Meckel; portio cervicalis trapezii of Cuvier; trapezius clavicularis of Haughton; clavo-cucullaire of Strauss-Dürckheim.

In the Mammalia this muscle approaches most closely to its occasional formation in the human subject among the higher Simiadæ. It is distinguished from the sterno-and cleido-mastoids on the one hand, and the trapezius on the other, in the Chimpanzee and Orang, where we find a simple areolar interval between it and these muscles. It is marked in the 'Recueil des Planches' of Cuvier and Laurillard, both in the text and illustrations of Callithrix, Sajou, and Marmoset. I have found it but slightly separated in the Macacus radiatus (Plate X. fig. 12, c). It is very broad in the Slender Loris and Maki vari. It is well marked and quite distinct in the Hedgehog (Plate XI. fig. 22, c), being attached below to the clavicle, outside of and deeper than the cleido-mastoid (b); and above to the curved ridge of the occipital bone, in connexion with the insertion of the trapezius (T). It is seen in the figure of the Tenrec given by Cuvier.

and LAURILLARD. In the Mole (Plate X. fig. 11, c) a broad and large muscle, parallel with the sterno-mastoid (a), seems to embody in itself both the cleido-occipital and cleido-mastoid; in this animal the origins of the sterno-mastoids cross each other over the median line. In the Bats, which have no cleido-mastoids, the cleido-occipital muscle seems to be represented by the occipital or neck portion of the long extensor of the wings, called by Cuvier the "dorso-occipital," which passes superficially over the clavicle to the thoracic limb, and is, apparently, the homologue of the cephalo-humeral. In the Armadillo Mr. Galton describes, under the name of the levator claviculae, a muscle arising from the occipital aponeurosis outside the trapezius; it is placed along the edge of, and parallel to, the cleido-mastoid, and is inserted close to its outer side into the clavicle. It is figured also by Cuvier and Laurillard in the same animal. It is clearly the homologue of the cleido-occipital, and not of the levator claviculae. In the Great Anteater the muscle is very large and distinct, excluding the trapezius altogether from the occiput: it was considered by Meckel as a second cleido-mastoid in this animal.

Through the claviculate and semiclaviculate Rodents the homologies of the cleidooccipital muscle can be clearly traced to the upper or cephalic element of the compound cephalo-humeral muscle which forms so important a part in the shoulder of the Carnivora. In the common Squirrel (Plate X. fig. 18, c) the muscle is connected at the occiput with the cranial attachment of the trapezius (T), which overlaps it superficially; below it is attached to the clavicle superficial to the cleido-mastoid (b). Intervening between it and the scapular attachment of the trapezius emerges the acromio-trachélien (e), to be attached to the acromial process superficial to the last-named muscle. This intervention of the acromio-trachélien, which I have before especially noted in this paper, is important as enabling us to discriminate between that portion of muscle which I take to form the homologue of the cleido-occipital, but which in the Carnivora and some Rodents is described by preceding writers as the clavicular portion of the trapezius itself. In the Flying Squirrel, the Beaver, and the Surmulot, this part forms equally a separate and distinct muscle, attached to the occiput near the trapezius, and separately to the clavicle below (see Plate XI. fig. 26, c). In the latter, as seen in the figure (c), the lower end is shifted outwards towards the acromial end of the clavicle, and with it is shifted the origin of the cleido-mastoid (b), so as still to preserve its relative superficial position: it is as if the clavicle had been elongated mainly at the inner or sternal end. In these animals the muscle has been described by anatomists as a second cleido-mastoid, but its invariable occipital attachment, the direction of its fibres, and its wide separation at its upper attachment from the real cleido-mastoid sufficiently distinguish it from that muscle. In the Marmot it is very large, and excludes the trapezius both from the occiput and the clavicle; anteriorly it passes forward superficial to the cleido-mastoid, and joins the hinder edge of the sterno-mastoid. In the Capybara and some other Rodents also, and in the Carnivora generally, it excludes the trapezius from the occiput, and is inserted into the movable clavicle, or the aponeurotic "inscription" which represents it, to which it is attached superficial to the cleido-mastoid, forming with it the cervical or cephalic

portion of the cephalo-humeral muscle, the lower part of which is formed by the muscles which form, in Man, the clavicular fibres of the deltoid and pectoralis major. In some, as in the Cat, this compound muscle is inserted as far down as the coronoid process of the ulna by longitudinal fusion with the brachialis anticus; but in most, as in the Dog, Badger and Weasel, and in the Rabbit and Guinea-pig, it is inserted into the humerus close below the pectoralis major. It will be seen, then, that I find the homologue of the cleido-occipital in the muscle which Meckel and Cuvier described as a second cleido-mastoid in the Insectivora and semiclaviculate Rodents, as well as in that which they have described in the Carnivora as the cervical portion of the trapezius, or the trapezius clavicularis (the clavo-cucullaris of Strauss-Dürckheim). The intervention of the acromial insertion of the acromio-trachélien between the fibres of this muscle and the trapezius proper, before alluded to, and the gradual way in which it excludes the trapezius from the occipital bone in the lower Apes and Monkeys, its relation to the latter muscle at the occiput, and the occasional blending at their adjacent borders as an abnormal human variety, are all circumstances which favour this view, which has also the merit of simplifying the perplexing homologies of the cephalic portion of the compound cephalo-humeral muscle, and explaining, more fully than before, the abnormal human varieties so frequently found in connexion with the side of the neck and shoulder. The identity of these homologues is well seen in the transitional forms found in the Insectivora and in the claviculate and semiclaviculate Rodents, as I have shown in the case of the Rabbit and Hedgehog.

In many of the Carnivora the cephalic and cervical portion of the compound cephalohumeral muscle is enormously developed, encroaching upon and excluding the trapezius, not only from the occiput, but also from the neck-vertebræ (see Plate XI. fig. 23, c). Forming a broad sheet of muscle, with the fibres directed downwards and backwards, its deeper fibres are, in the Cat, inserted upon a cartilaginous rod representing the clavicle (x). Into the deeper surface of this are also inserted the fibres of the distinct cleidomastoid element (b); the superficial fibres are, however, continued over the surface of this rod uninterruptedly into the arm by longitudinal fusion with the clavicular fibres of the pectoralis major (as STRAUSS-DÜRCKHEIM thinks), and blending finally with the superficial fibres of the brachialis anticus, are inserted with it into the ulna. In most of the Carnivora the clavicle is represented simply by a tendinous intersection on the deeper surface of the cephalo-humeral muscle. In this family the most striking development of the cleido-occipital is found in the peculiar arrangement, before alluded to, in the striped Hyæna, Polecat, and Genette, and to a less marked degree in the Coati, as figured in CUVIER and LAURILLARD'S 'Recueil.' A second clavicular head of the cleido-occipital crosses superficially over the cleido-mastoid to join the sternal origin of the sterno-mastoid, with the hinder border of which at the sterno-clavicular joint it is united, and not at all with the cleido-mastoid. Thus is produced an apparently double or second sterno-cleidomastoid muscle, imbricated upon the true one, and strikingly resembling the human variety I have described in an earlier part of this paper. The Marmot shows a similar arrangement.

In the Hyrax capensis, which presents many points of connexion in its muscular system with the Rodents on the one hand, and the Pachyderms on the other, the arrangement of these muscles admits of the best reading, I believe, by the homologies herein indicated. As described by MURIE and MIVART, the sterno-cleido-mastoid apparatus is represented by three muscles:—One, attached to the occipital bone, and inserted with the biceps into the ulna, is the cleido-occipital, joining in the formation of a compound cephalohumeral with some of the segregated fibres of the pectoralis and of the brachialis anticus. Another portion, the true sterno-mastoid, is connected above with the angle of the jaw and masseter (sterno-maxillary v. mandibular of the Ruminants and Pachyderms, see also Meckel, Anat. Comp. t. vi. p. 163); below, it joins its fellow of the opposite side at and above the sternum. A third portion, a very slender muscle, somewhat resembling the omo-hyoid, is attached in front to the paramastoid process, and joins behind with the first on its deep surface: this third part, according to the homologies herein sustained, would be the true cleido-mastoid muscle, the name which is bestowed by MURIE and MIVART upon the first described portion (Proc. Zool. Soc. April 11, 1865, pp. 331, 332).

The limits of this paper will hardly permit me to follow further the various developments of the foregoing group of muscles in the Pachyderms, Ruminants, and the rest of the Mammalia. It will be enough for my purpose if I have succeeded in showing the more important forms which, when occurring as varieties in the human subject, tend to exhibit in a sufficiently marked manner what may be considered as proofs and examples of the Darwinian principle of reversion, or law of inheritance, in this department of anatomical science.

I will now proceed to consider another group of occasional varieties in the human shoulder, which I believe I was the first to connect with their homologies in the animal kingdom, and one of which, the *scapulo-clavicular*, I was the first to discover and name in the human subject.

Sterno-chondro-scapular and Scapulo-clavicular Muscles.—In my paper read before the Royal Society in 1864, I figured and described examples of an apparently double development of the subclavius muscle. The upper portion had the normal attachments of the subclavius muscle; the lower part, separated from it by a distinct areolar interval, somewhat wide externally, arose, in one case, by a distinct tendon from the sternum and first rib-cartilage, but, in another, in common with the subclavius. Passing outwards as a somewhat fusiform muscle over the axillary vessels and nerves, it was inserted fleshy into the tubercle of the coracoid process and conoid ligament. In my paper published in the 'Proceedings of the Royal Society' in 1865, I figured and described a similar muscle, found on the left side of a thin female subject (Plate IX. fig. 10, i). It was a roundish fusiform muscle, arising tendinous from the first rib-cartilage close to the sternum, and inserted into the suprascapular ligament and base of the coracoid process, where it was connected with the origin of the omo-hyoid muscle (o).

In the same shoulder a distinct band of muscular fibres, about an inch wide and an

eighth thick (k), arose from the base of the coracoid and suprascapular ligament, and passing upwards and forwards was inserted into the outer third of the clavicle (x), close to the subclavius muscle (m m); it was quite distinct from the first-described sternoscapular muscle, but was connected with it to the origin of the omo-hyoid, which was normal in all other respects. In my paper of 1868 I noted another specimen of this formation on the left shoulder of a male subject. These abnormal human varieties, the sterno-scapular and scapulo-clavicular muscles, have been found in comparatively few subjects, partly, I believe, on account of the difficulty of preserving them entire in the ordinary way of apportioning the subject to different students, and the liability of the latter especially to be removed along with the fat and tissues which fill up the interval between the scapula, clavicle, and first rib when the vessels and nerves are dissected. I have therefore considered that any estimate of their frequency in the human subject would necessarily be à fallacious one.

The sterno-scapular muscle corresponds in most respects with the following abnormal muscular slips described by their observers under various names.

MECKEL described a double subclavius muscle, and compared it to the external and internal intercostals (Muskellehre, 1816). It had previously been described by BOEHMEE as a muscle connected with the origin of the subclavius, and inserted into the coracoid or acromion (!) process (Observ. Anat. rar. præfat. Halle, 1756, p. ix); and also by HALLEE as a double subclavius (De Corp. Hum. Fabr. t. v. part i. p. 95 a, and t. vi. p. 77, 1756); and by Sœmmerring as a variety of the omo-hyoid, arising from the first rib and inserted into the scapula (De Corp. Hum. Fabr. t. iii. p. 173, 1796); and by Rosenmüller, on the left side of a male subject arising from the rib-cartilage behind the subclavius, and inserted near the base of the coracoid process (Beiträge für die Zergliederungskunst, Bd. i. Heft 3, S. 375, Tab. ii., and 'De nonnullis Musculis,' 1814, p. 6).

R. Wagner described it as a variety of the *omo-hyoid*, arising from the first rib-cartilage, and inserted into the *incisura scapulæ* with the origin of the *omo-hyoid* (Heusinger's Zeitschrift, Bd. iii. S. 335).

THELE described a rounded muscle, arising from the first rib-cartilage, and inserted into the base of the coracoid and upper border of the scapula, in a male subject in whom the omo-hyoid was wanting. He considered it as a variety of the serratus magnus (Scemmerring's Encyclop. Anat., Jourdan's Trans. p. 206, 1843).

Macwhinnie quotes Haller and Schmerring as above (op. cit. p. 187). Hallett describes as a variety of the omo-hyoid a considerable slip of muscle, connected by one tendon to the first rib-cartilage, and by another inserted into the upper border of the scapula with the origin of a normal omo-hyoid (op. cit. p. 4). Gruber also describes a similar abnormality as connected with the omo-hyoid (Vier Abhand. 1847, and Neue Anomalien, 1849).

The Scapulo-claricular variety I believe to be homologically identical with the muscular slips described by the following writers.

Von Krause described, under the name of the coraco-cervicalis, a slip of muscle

arising with the *omo-hyoid* from the base of the coracoid process and upper border of the scapula, and inserted into the cervical fascia close to the scapula (quoted by QUAIN, 'Arteries,' pl. 4, fig. 21).

MACWHINNIE described a muscle as a variety additional to the *omo-hyoid*, arising from the scapula behind and internal to that muscle, forming a belly as thick as the little finger, and attached by a rounded tendon to the middle of the upper border of the clavicle (op. cit. p. 187).

HALLETT described a muscle arising from the upper border of the scapula with the *omohyoid*, and inserted into the upper part of the sterno-clavicular articulation. He also found other slips of the same general character (op. cit. p. 4).

LUSCHEA found a slip of muscle connected with the origin of the *omo-hyoid*, and inserted into the back part of the inner end of the clavicle, which he considered as a variety of the *omo-hyoid* (MULLEE'S Archiv, 1856, S. 284). Similar slips are mentioned by HYETL (Lehrbuch, S. 344) and by HENLE (op. cit. S. 116) as varieties of the *omo-hyoid*.

Sterno-clavicular Muscle.—In the 'Proceedings of the Royal Society' (June 21st, 1866, p. 238), I described under the above name (first given by Mr. Berkeley Hill) an abnormal muscle found on the left side of a male subject (see Plate IX. fig. 9, l). It was triangular in shape, arising by a thin tendon from the front of the manubrium sterni just below the origin of the sterno-mastoid, formed a distinct muscular layer spreading upwards and outwards in a fan-shape under the pectoralis major (P), and separated from the subclavius (m) by the costo-coracoid membrane, and was inserted into the lower border of the clavicle about its middle third, passing as far outwards as the origin of the deltoid muscle. A cleido-occipital muscle (c) coexisted. On both sides of another male described in the same paper (p. 231) I found the upper digitation of origin of the pectoralis minor somewhat separated from the rest, and arising as high as the first intercostal aponeurosis, passing upwards to be inserted into the costo-coracoid membrane and clavicle. This was specified as a formation similar to a sterno-clavicular muscle, produced by a differentiation of the fibres of the pectoralis minor, as found in the Rodents.

A similar variety was recorded by Haller (Elements of Physiology), and quoted by Henle. Theile also described as a variety of the *subclavius* a muscle arising from the first rib-cartilage, and inserted into the middle part of the front border of the clavicle (*op. cit.* p. 173). In May 1864 Mr. Berkeley Hill described a well-marked specimen of this muscle under the above name, quoting Haller, and pointing out its homology in the Bats and Birds (Proc. Royal Med.-Chirurg. Soc. vol. iv. No. 6, p. 351).

Comparative Anatomy of the three foregoing varieties.—In the Coati (Simia paniscus) Meckel describes a second insertion of the subclavius into the scapula (sterno-scapular), near the attachment of the levator anguli scapulæ. This is quoted by R. Wagner (op. cit. S. 336) as corresponding to the double subclavius in Man. In the Insectivora I have found a corresponding muscle distinctly marked in the Mole (Plate X. fig. 11, i), arising outside the true subclavius (m) from the sternum and first rib, separated from it by an areolar interval; it crossed the insertion of the supraspinatus (q), and was inserted into

the acromion process and acromio-clavicular ligament, where it was still more distinctly separated from the subclavius. In the same animal Mr. Hill found, as I have myself subsequently also done, a remarkable development of the sterno-clavicular muscle, as a large triangular mass of muscle arising from the front half of the sternum, and inserted into the stunted but strong clavicle close to the origin of the deltoid. The same author also mentions the presence of this muscle in the Bats.

A sterno-scapular muscle is described by Mr. Galton in the Dasypus sexcinctus under the head of subclavius, arising from the first rib, and inserted by a flat tendon along the whole extent of the upper edge of the strong acromion process, and continuous with the supraspinous fascia. He refers to its similarity to the sterno-scapular muscle described by Mivart and Murie in the Agouti (Trans. Linn. Soc. vol. xxvi. p. 528). He also found the subclavius inserted into the acromion process of the scapula in the Two-toed Sloth. In the Cape Anteater, Humphry describes the subclavius as a large muscle arising from the first and second rib-cartilage and adjacent part of the sternum beneath the pectorals; it is attached by a few fibres to the clavicle, but the major part passes beneath that bone over to the coracoid and its ligaments to be inserted into the supraspinatus fascia, as well as to the margin of the acromion process (op. cit. p. 297, and plate 4). Galton found, in the same animal, a sesamoid bone at the insertion of the muscle, just under the acromio-clavicular joint (op. cit. p. 572).

In the Carnivora the homologies of the sterno-scapular muscle are but little decided. In the Weasel a deeper set of the pectoral muscular bundles, arising from the manubrium, pass upwards and outwards over the tuberosity of the humerus, and are continuous with a muscular layer lying upon the supraspinatus, and attached with it to the upper border of the scapula (Plate XI. fig. 24, i). In the Dog also, a few of the fibres of the pectoralis are differentiated and connected with the supraspinatus. In Cuvier and LAURILLARD'S plates of the Lion, it seems to be represented by the muscle marked J, and in that of the Panther marked J+2. In the Hyæna it is very large, attached, on the one hand, to the sternum and first rib-cartilage, and on the other to the upper border of the scapula (j+). It seems also to be present in the Genette. In the Rodents it is better marked, blended, however, more or less, with the subclavius, the scapuloclavicular, and the sterno-clavicular muscles. I have found it very large in the Rabbit (Plate X. fig. 16, B, i i'), arranged in two thick bundles, an upper (i) and a lower (i') passing from the front of the manubrium sterni and suprasternal process, and continued uninterruptedly under the clavicle, forming a thick sheet of muscle upon the supraspinatus (q) to be inserted into the upper border of the scapula. Connected with it and covering its upper half above the clavicle is a layer of fibres (A, k), reaching only from the scapular spine to the clavicle (x), into the upper border of which they are inserted. This layer, more or less separable from the deeper or true sterno-scapular fibres, I have considered to represent the scapulo-clavicular muscle, which becomes a more distinct muscle in its congeners, the Guinea-pig and Norway Rat (Plate X. fig. 17, A & B, k, and Plate XI. fig. 25, k). On the opposite or lower border of the clavicle are attached the MDCCCLXX. P

fibres of insertion of a broad triangular muscular layer (Plate X. fig. 16, l), arising from the sternum under the pectorals. This is clearly the homologue of the sterno-clavicular muscle, disguised by its connexion with the sterno-scapular.

The group of muscles just described have been taken together as one *m. pectoralis minor* by Krause (op. cit. S. 104), and as the subclavius by Cuvier (Recueil, pl. 233), but the interposition of the clavicle between the upper and lower portions of the deeper layer points evidently to their correspondence, respectively, to the scapulo-clavicular and sterno-clavicular of other animals; and they are, at least, as worthy of separation as the component parts of the cephalo-humeral, as distinguished by the same bone or its tendinous representative. Another portion of the pectorals of the Rabbit answer more closely than these to the pectoralis minor of Man.

The sterno-scapular muscle in the Guinea-pig (Plate X. fig. 17, A & B, i) corresponds with a subclavius in being attached to the movable clavicle (x) by its more superficial fibres, while the deeper are continued to the outer part of the spinous process of the scapula, where it is inserted between the supraspinatus (q) and infraspinatus. In the same animal the scapulo-clavicular muscle (k) is very considerable in size and distinct from the supraspinatus, over which it moves freely; arising from the scapular spine and supraspinous fascia, internal to the last, and inserted into the movable clavicle (x) opposite to the sterno-clavicular (1). This last-named muscle arises from the middle of the sternum, between and partly covered by the upper and lower fibres of the pectorals, forming a triangular layer very distinct in its origin and insertion. In the Norway Rat (Plate X. fig. 19, & Plate XI. fig. 26) the subclavius proper (m) is represented by a small bundle of fibres arising to the inner side of the sterno-scapular, and inserted into the lower surface of the inner end of the clavicle (x). The sterno-scapular is a fusiform muscle (i) ending in two tendons of insertion, one with the omo-hyoid into the cervical border, and the other into the acromion process of the scapula. The scapulo-clavicular (k) in the same animal is very distinct, arising from the middle of the supraspinous fascia, and inserted into the outer end of the clavicle (x). This bone articulates directly both with the sternum and scapula, so that the action of the muscle upon it presents nearly the same conditions as in the human subject, and is necessarily more limited than in the Rabbit and other semiclaviculate animals.

The sterno-scapular muscle has been described by Murie and Mivart in the Hyrax capensis as arising from the sternum in front of the origin of the pectoralis minor, and continued over the shoulder articulation to its insertion into the anterior angle of the scapula (op. cit. p. 338). They also found it in the Guinea pig, with a slip from the supraspinatus to the clavicle (scapulo-clavicular), and state that Meckel describes it as a part of the subclavius in the Hare, Porcupine, and Agouti (pp. 259, 260), and that Cuvier considered it as part of the trapezius? (Leçons, vol. i. p. 373). In the 'Recueil de Planches' it is marked in the Rabbit as subclavius (pl. 233). In the Crested Agouti, Mivart and Murie found the sterno-scapular to have a double origin, viz. a larger, from the sternum between the pectoral bundles; and a smaller, i

the manubrium and first rib. Some of the fibres of the larger origin are connected with the clavicle (sterno-clavicular), and the rest of them join the smaller origin under that bone, to be inserted near the anterior vertebral angle, and into the supraspinous fascia of the scapula. In the Hare they found one broad sternal origin and a very wide scapular insertion, extending along the whole cervical border, some of them adhering to the outer end of the rudimentary clavicle (subclavius or sterno-clavicular) (Proc. Zool. Soc. June 1866, p. 398). In Cuvier and Laurillard's plates of the Porcupine (pl. 229, fig. 2) the sterno-scapular muscle, marked as a subclavius, is very long, and passes outward to the scapular spine. MACALISTER has also found it in this animal (op. cit. p. 11). In the plates of the Capybara, Paca, and Squirrel, the same muscle, or the sterno-clavicular, is marked as a deeper portion of the pectorals. In the common Squirrel I have found it as a distinct muscle, passing under the clavicle to the scapular spine and suprascapular fascia (Plate X. fig. 18, i). The sterno-scapular muscle receives its highest development in the Pachyderms and Ruminants, and especially in the Elephant, Hippopotamus, Peccary, Pig, Horse, and Ass (Plate XI. figs. 20 & 21, i), to whose heavy bodies it forms a powerful, muscular, sling-like support, upon and between the fore legs, reversing its "point d'appui" as compared with its action in the animals before described, in whom its power is exercised chiefly in the direction of the fore limbs. In these heavier animals its arrangement scarcely calls for a more detailed description in this place. In his monograph upon the Hippopotamus, Gratiolet describes the muscle as the scapulosternal, arising from the coracoid and acromion processes and the supraspinatus fascia, and inserted into the manubrium sterni and first costal cartilage. He considers it as probably the homologue of the subclavius (p. 256).

In the Marsupials, a muscle answering to it is represented by Cuvier and Laurillard in their plates of the Great Kangaroo, Kangaroo-Rat, and Sarigue, connected with the scapula and supraspinatus fascia. Galton mentions that in the Wombat a portion of the subclavius muscle is carried on through the supraspinatus fascia to the scapular spine; and that the notes of a MS. work in the Oxford Museum describe in the same animal a second head of the subclavius, "a very delicate one arising from the lower ribs and passing vertically upwards to end in a fine tendon." Mivart describes a muscle passing from the sternum to the coracoid bone in the Iguana tuberculata (Proc. Zool. Soc. 1867, p. 779).

The Scapulo-clavicular muscle is described and figured in Cuvier and Laurillard's plates of the Rat-mole of the Cape (pl. 216+) with the following annotation:—"Dans ces notes marginales," M. Cuvier dit, "Il existe un muscle particulier allant de la portion moyen de l'omoplate à la clavicule, où il s'insère derrière la deuxième portion claviculaire du trapèze, ou pourra l'appeler 'sus-clavier' ou 'scapulo-clavien.'" They also describe and figure, under the same names and nearly the same terms, a like muscle in the Sarigue (Didelphis marsupialis).

On a review of this group of muscles in the foregoing animals, the sterno-scapular muscle seems, in many instances, to embody the fibres of the subclavius, and in others

to be made up chiefly by the union, at the imperfect clavicle or its tendinous representative, of a sterno-clavicular and a scapulo-clavicular element.

In the heavier animals, in whom the clavicle is altogether wanting, it constitutes a continuous muscular support to the trunk upon and between the scapulæ, uninterrupted by the intervention of a clavicular representative, and embodying all the various elements. In animals possessed of a clavicle, and using the fore paws as hands, the distinction of the sterno-clavicular, subclavian, and scapulo-clavicular elements becomes more marked; while in some, like the Rabbit, a combination of all these is evident in the compound muscular mass. In the Guinea-pig the sterno-clavicular and scapulo-clavicular are large and distinct muscles, while the sterno-scapular is also very distinct and separate from them. In the Norway Rat the subclavius and sterno-scapular are distinct, and the scapulo-clavicular well marked, while the sterno-clavicular seems altogether wanting. The last-named element seems to be the most marked in Mammalia of burrowing and flying habits, and it draws powerfully the primary segment of the fore limbs, chiefly used in these motions, backwards against the resisting and reacting atmosphere. All these modifications are evidences of teleological adaptations of a common morphological structure, such as we find prevailing in other parts of the animal organization.

Supracostal Muscle.—An abnormal and infrequent variety in the human subject was first recorded and described by me in the 'Proceedings of the Royal Society' of 1865. It occurred, on both sides, in a muscular male subject, in whom a levator-clavicula and thirteen other abnormalities were found (see Plate IX. fig. 8, n). It was a thin, flat, ribbon-shaped muscle, placed upon the upper four ribs, between the digitations of the pectoralis minor and those of the serratus magnus. It was attached above to the outer edge of the first rib near its cartilage, by a fleshy attachment about an inch broad, passing downwards and slightly forwards; the fibres gradually spread out in somewhat of a fan-shape, and dropped insertions into the outer surfaces of the second, third, and fourth ribs, close to the origin of the pectoralis minor. It was entirely distinct from the intercostals, from which a well-marked fascia separated it.

In the 'Proceedings of the Royal Society' of 1867 I recorded another specimen, found also in a male subject, and on both sides. It was attached above to the first rib, as in the first case, and was connected also externally to the cervical fascia covering the scalenus anticus, with which it seemed to be in part continuous. Below it was attached to the third rib only, in front of the serratus magnus. Since that time we have found another specimen of this muscle, also in a male, and on both sides.

Mr. Macalister has found this muscle several times, very large and muscular. In a male subject it existed on the left side only, attached above wholly to the cervical fascia, and below to the third and fourth ribs, about $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the sternum, in the same situation as the foregoing. He has found it usually narrower and thicker on the right side than on the left. In one instance it measured $3\frac{3}{4}$ inches long, $\frac{3}{4}$ inch wide, and $\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick, overlapping the upper digitations of the serratus magnus, and ascending behind the axillary vein, was attached on the right side to the first rib, and on the left into the

cervical fascia only. It lay considerably external to the origin of the lesser pectoral muscle, and was inserted internal to the scalenus anticus. Mr. MACALISTER considered it as acting from below upon the cervical fascia above (Notes on Musc. Anomalies, p. 7). He states that the muscle occurs in the Balænoptera rostrata, in the Seal, and in several Monkeys.

Professor Turner, of Edinburgh, has also met with this muscle in two male subjects; in one on both sides, and in the other on the right side only. In the former it consisted of a long, ribbon-shaped muscle attached by a thin expanded tendon to the upper border of the fifth rib, immediately internal to the serratus magnus. The innermost part of this attachment was continuous with the intercostal fascia, and was attached to the rib at its junction with the cartilage. From the anterior surface of the fourth rib, close to the origin of the serratus magnus, a second and smaller origin proceeded. The muscle passed over the third and second ribs to be attached to the first rib immediately external to the tendon of origin of the subclavius. It was 6 inches long and $\frac{5}{8}$ of an inch broad at its widest part. In the subject in which the muscle was found on the right side only, it was attached to the upper border of the fourth rib, 2 inches external to the junction with the cartilage, ascended over the third and fourth ribs, and was attached above to the first rib \(\frac{3}{4}\) of an inch outside the origin of the subclavius (Journal of Anatomy and Physiology, May 1867, p. 251; and May 1868, p. 393, and figure). In the Liverpool Medical and Surgical Reports, October 1867, Dr. Roberts describes one of these muscles extending from the fourth to the first rib; and in Virchow's 'Archiv,' November 18th, 1867, one is described by Bochpalek, Jun., under the name of "supracostalis anterior," and another by Pye-Smith in No. XLIII. of the same Journal (p. 142).

Comparative Anatomy.—Professor Turner considers the supracostal muscle described by me to be the homologue of the thoracic prolongation of the mammalian rectus, which in the Cat, Otter, Beaver, Porcupine, and various other Mammalia reaches as far forwards as the first rib. But, as this accurate observer proceeds to say, "In these animals, however, the thoracic and abdominal parts of the rectus are directly continuous with each other, whilst in the human subject a break, corresponding in the first specimen to the fifth rib, and in the second to the fifth rib and fourth intercostal space, occurred; but this break may be regarded as comparable to one of those transverse tendinous intersections invariably found in the abdominal portion of the human rectus abdominis, and which exists also in the recti of the greater number of Mammalia." In his first paper "On the Musculus sternalis" (op. cit. 1867, p. 250) this author alludes also to a muscle described by BOERHAAVE and PORTAL, which was directly continuous with the thoracic attachment of the rectus abdominis, as undoubtedly to be regarded as the homologue of the anterior fibres of the mammalian rectus. In the case recorded by BOERHAAVE it reached behind the great pectoral muscle as high as the junction of the third rib with its cartilage, and in that described by PORTAL as high as the second rib. This latter muscle is, however, evidently a formation distinct from the supracostalis, which pertains rather to the upper part of the thorax than to its abdominal portion.

There is another muscle, almost universal in the Mammalia, which may be considered perhaps to be a part of the same apparatus as the rectus muscle; but which is confined, even in the most highly developed instances, to the upper part of the thorax. It is described by Cuvier under the name of the sterno-costalis. In many respects this muscle agrees better in its homological bearings with the abnormal human supracostalis than the rectus thoracious does. Besides being confined to the upper part of the thorax, the upper attachment of the muscle is always in close relation to the insertion of the anterior scalenus, as in the human abnormality. This is well seen in the Dog (Plate XI. fig. 27, n), where it is connected below, not to the sternum as in many Mammalia, but to the second and third costal cartilages and intercostal aponeurosis, and does not reach anywhere near the insertion of the rectus abdominis. The same arrangement is found also in the Badger. In the Rabbit the muscle is short, but broad, and reaches from the first rib and to the cartilage of the second rib, extending inwards as far as to the sternum (see Plate X. fig. 16, B, n); while the rectus thoracicus reaches only up to the second rib, the most common upward limit in the Mammalia generally. It is not mentioned by Krause in his description of this animal. In cases in which the rectus extends to the first rib, the sterno-costal muscle usually overlaps it (see figs. 18 & 26, n), assuming an oblique position on the thorax. It is always attached to the first rib close to the inner side of the origin of the scalenus anticus, and thence passes obliquely downwards and inwards between the upper end of the rectus thoracicus and the pectoral system of fibres, the pectoralis minor and sterno-clavicular both lying superficial to it. The rectus thoracicus itself is attached to the first rib and its cartilage, always closer to the sternum, and much internal to the upper attachment of the sterno-costal, and never has so intimate a relation with the scaleni as the last-named muscle. In this respect especially the human supracostal muscle resembles the sterno-costal of animals much more than the rectus thoracicus. In the Mammalia generally the sterno-costal is a more or less triangular muscle, but sometimes tapers off below before it joins at the sternum with the deeper pectoral fibres, of which it always forms the deepest layer. It is covered by a fascia derived from that of the rectus thoracicus and intercostals. In the Quadrumana the sterno-costal is usually large. In the Bonnet-Monkey it reaches and crosses the upper part of the rectus thoracicus as low down as the second and third rib (see Plate X. fig. 12, n). In the Magot it is enormous, as figured by Cuvier and Laurillard, arising by digitations from the three upper ribs, and passing downwards and inwards to the three upper pieces of the sternum. In the Papio Mormon it is attached to the first rib above, and below to the second and third costal cartilages. In the Marmoset and Lemur macaco it arises from the first rib close to the scalenus, and crosses, as in the Carnivora generally, the upper fibres of the rectus thoracicus. It is found in the Hedgehog and Tenrec; and according to CUVIER, in the Black Bear, Coati, Panther, Lion, Hyæna (very large), Badger, Genette, Seal*, and Polecat. In the Panther a slip of

^{*} In his paper on the Myology of the Cape Anteater and Seal, Professor Humphry describes, in the latter animal, under the name of the subclavius, a muscle "thin from the margin of the sternum opposite the second,

muscle from the scalenus joins it. I have also found it in the Weasel and Badger. Dog (fig. 27), and Cat. In the Rodents CUVIER figures it in the Marmot, Beaver, Porcupine. and Agouti. It is not mentioned by MIVART and MURIE in the latter animal. I have found it long, well marked, and overlapping the rectus in the Norway Rat and in the Squirrel, connected with the first rib between the subclavius and scalenus, crossing the upper part of the rectus, which reaches to the first rib, and reaching far down the stermum to join the pectoral fibres arising from that bone (Plate X. fig. 18, n). In CUVIER and LAURILLARD'S plates it seems to be the muscle marked as the lower part of the scalenus, and figured as a very large muscle in the Bradypus tridactylus and Tamandua, reaching from the first rib to the eighth, between the pectorals and serratus magnus. In MECKEL'S description of the Two-toed Anteater, he describes a long muscle arising from the first rib, and inserted into the front part of the ninth, tenth, and eleventh, under the name of "der kleiner Brustmuskel," stating expressly that it is not attached to the scapula, but that it seems to be an elongation of the external intercostal (Archiv, Bd. v. Hft. i. p. 41, c). This is evidently a muscle of the same nature as our human supracostalis, and agrees more with the sterno-costal of the other Mammalia than with the rectus thoracicus, which is coexistent and well developed in the same animal. The same muscle is figured in this animal by Cuvier and Laurillard (pl. 257. figs. 2 & 6) as the anterior scalenus; but as it commences clearly at the first rib, and does not ascend into the neck, it cannot be admitted as entitled to this name.

In the Elephant the sterno-costal muscle seems to be represented, according to the same authorities, by a large muscle, attached on the one hand by three digitations to the first rib, and on the other to the side of the upper pieces of the sternum, reaching as low as, but not overlapping, the upper insertion of the rectus abdominis. By some this may be considered as a rectus sternalis with an interruption of the nature of a tendinous "inscription;" but the appearance of the muscle agrees best with that of the sterno-costalis, while a tendinous separation or interval between the rectus thoracicus and the rectus abdominis is not usually seen in the Mammalia. In the Peccary it is composed of two large digitations quite unlike a rectus sternalis; and in the Pig, the anterior fibres of the most anterior intercostal muscle cross superficially over the second rib-cartilage to be inserted into the sternum below it, showing a feeble development of the sterno-costalis or supracostalis muscle. In the Ass the muscle is represented by one digitation only.

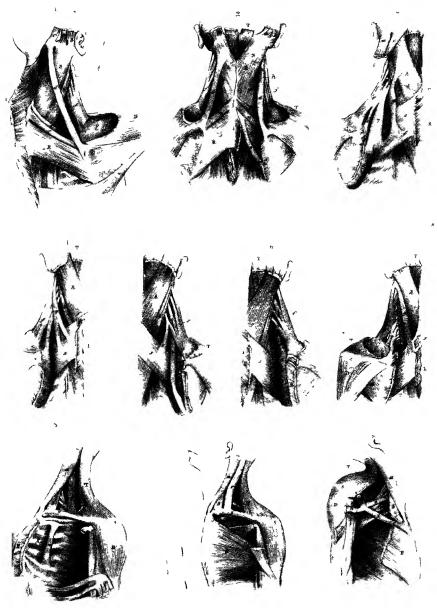
Upon the whole it seems to me that the balance of facts is more in favour of the identity of the human abnormal *supracostalis* muscle with the *sterno-costalis* of the **Mammalia**, than with the *rectus thoracicus* of these animals, as in the homology proposed by Professor Turner. Finally, I would refer to the same *supracostal* or *sterno-costal*

third, and fourth ribs, and inserted into the edge of the first rib near the point corresponding to the insertion of the scalenus anxious in Man. The artery of the fore limb crossed its insertion. It was in close contact with the scalenus, indeed some of its fibres joined that muscle" (op. cit. p. 297 and pl. 6). This description clearly answers to the sterno-costal muscle figured by Cuvier and Laurielead in the same animal.

homologue the muscular slip described and figured from the Crocodile by Professor Rollisson, in his valuable memoir on "The Homologies of certain Muscles connected with the Shoulder-joint" (p. 626 and fig. 3, e, i), as "a muscular fascicle which arises from the second sterno-costal cartilage in the same series as the external oblique and intercostals, but which may also be looked upon as homologous with an anterior segment of the rectus abdominis, which is often not distinguishable from the former of these muscles. It ends in a delicate tendon, which loses itself along the coracoid groove in the sternum and the origin of the pectoralis major."

EXPLANATION OF THE PLATES.

- For the sake of convenient reference the letters of each figure point out the same or homologous muscles, &c.
 - a. Sterno-mastoid; a', sterno-mandibular or maxillary of veterinary anatomists.
 - b. Cleido-mastoid.
 - Cleido-occipital, second cleido-mastoid of MECKEL and Cuvier; trapezius clavicularis
 of the latter and other authors.
 - d. Occipito-scapular. Rhomboideus capitis; rhomboide de la tête of Cuvier; rhomboide antérieur of Meckel; levator scapulæ minor vel posterior of Douglass and Burmeister.
 - d. Homologous slip of the last named.
 - D. Deltoid.
 - e. Levator claviculæ of Huxley; acromio-trachélien of Cuvier; omo-trachélien, acromio-basilar of Vicq d'Azye; levator scapulæ major v. anterior of Douglass and Burmeister; transverso-scapulaire of Strauss-Durckheim; clavio-trachélien of Church; omo-atlanticus of Haughton.
 - a and η. Homologous slips of the preceding connected with the levator anguli scapulæ and the serrati respectively.
 - f. Levator anguli scapulæ.
 - F. Abnormal slips of ditto.
 - g. Adjutor splenii of Walther; rhombo-atloid of Macalister.
 - h. Splenius capitis.
 - h'. Splenius colli.
 - Sterno-scapular; subclavius of Meckel and Cuvier; pectoralis anticus of veterinary anatomists.
 - j. Scalenus anticus.
 - j'. Scalenus posticus or medius.
 - k. Scapulo-clavicular; scapulo-clavien of Cuvier; part of sterno-scapular, subclavius c supraspinatus of other writers.
 - ⁷ Sterno-clavicular; pectoralis minor of some authors.



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- m. Subclavius.
- n. Supracostalis or sterno-costalis; the rectus thoracicus of Turner.
- o. Omo-hyoid.
- P. Pectoralis major.
- p. Pectoralis minor.
- q. Supraspinatus.
- R. Rhomboideus major.
- r. Rhomboideus minor.
- Rt. Rectus thoracicus; continuation of rectus abdominis.
- S. Serratus magnus.
- s. Serratus posticus superior.
- T. Trapezius.
- t. Subscapularis.
- u. Rectus capitis anticus major.
- v. Rectus capitis anticus minor.
- w. Rectus lateralis.
- x. Clavicle, or its rudimentary representative, or tendinous "inscription."
- y. Tuberosity of the humerus.
 - 3. Acromion process, or spine of scapula.
- z. Metacromion process of scapula.
- 1. Transverse process of the atlas.
- b c. Levator humeri, lower part of cephalo-humeral of some writers, when formed by the cleudo-mastoid (b) and cleudo-occupital (c) above, with the clavicular fibres of the deltoids (D) or pectoralis major (P) below.
- be. The same compound muscle, when formed above by the cleido-mastoid (b) and the acromo-trachélien or levator claviculæ (e), and by the same muscles below.
- θ. An abnormal anomalous muscular slip connected with the rhomboideus major, found only in one subject (male).

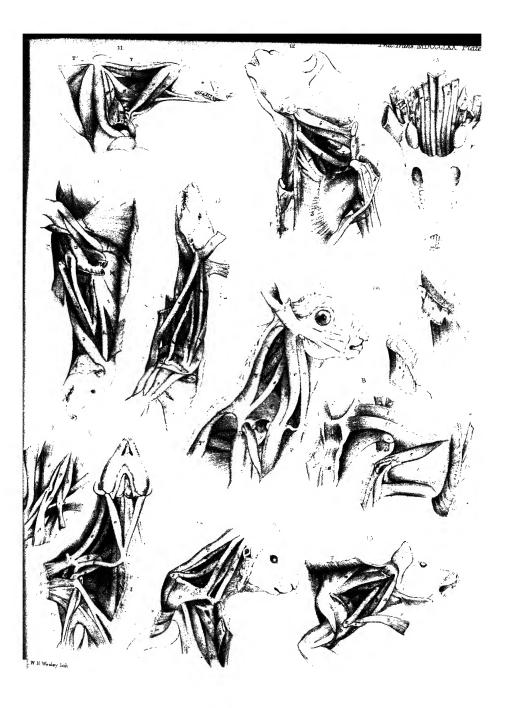
PLATE IX.

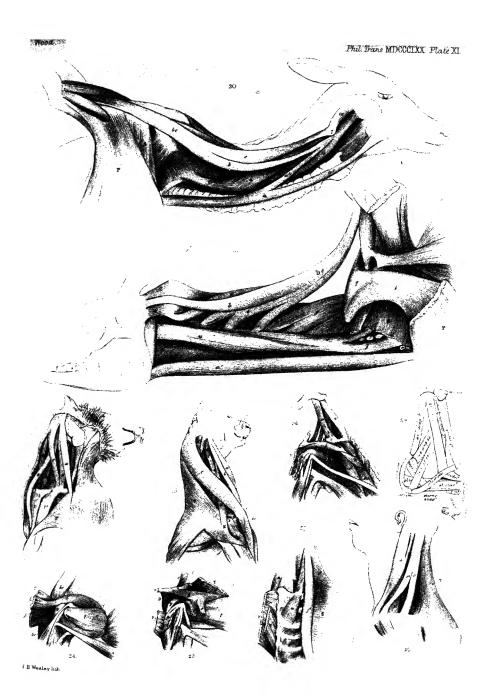
- Fig. 1. Back view of the muscles of the human shoulder in a male subject, showing the occupito-scapular variety (d) on the right side.
- Fig. 2. Back view on both sides, showing varieties homologous with the occipito-scapular (d, d), and one other anomalous slip (θ) of rhomboideus major (R).
- Fig. 3. Back view on left side, showing homologous occipito-scapular (δ) and two slips (ε and η) from levator anguli scapulæ (f) to serratus magnus (S) and serratus posticus superior (s).
- Fig. 4. Back view on left side, showing slips (ϵ and n) of levator anguli scapulæ (f) to serratus posticus superior (s) and serratus magnus (S).
- Fig. 5. Back view on right side, showing homologous slips (ϵ and η) to the same muscles from the front surface of levator angula scapulæ (f).

- Fig. 6. Back view on right side, showing homologous slip (η) in front of levator anguli scapula (f) to serratus magnus (S).
- Fig. 7. Back view on left side, showing slips (F) of levator anguli scapulæ (f) to serratus magnus (S) and rhomboideus minor (r).
- Fig. 8. View of dissection of the left side of the neck and thorax of male subject, showing levator claviculae (e) and supracostalis (n) muscular varieties.
- Fig. 9. View of dissection of the left side of the neck and thorax of male subject, showing the cleido-occipital (c) and sterno-clavicular (l) muscular varieties.
- Fig. 10. View of dissection of the right side of the neck and thorax of a female subject, showing the sterno-scapular (i) and scapulo-clavicular (k) muscular varieties.

PLATE X.

- Fig. 11. View of the dissection of the right side of the neck- and shoulder-muscles of the common Mole (Talpa europæa), showing cleido-occipital (c), occipito-scapular (d), splenius capitis (h), and sterno-scapular (i).
- Fig. 12. View of the dissection of the left side of the Bonnet-Monkey (Macacus radiatus), to show cleido-mastoid (b), cleido-occipital (c), levator clavicalæ or acromiotrachélien (e), and supracostalis or sterno-costalis (n). The clavicle (x) is disarticulated from the sternum and turned back with the scapula and muscles.
- Fig. 13. Front view of the dissection of the muscles of the prævertebral muscles of the Rabbit (Lepus cuniculatus), to show the cranial attachments of the cleido-mastoid (b), levator claviculæ (e), and their relation to the rectus capitis anticus major (u) and minor (v).
- Fig. 14. View of the dissection of the neck- and shoulder-muscles of the right side of the Badger (Meles taxus), to show cleido-mastoid (b), cleido-occipital (c, c'), occipito-scapular (d), acromio-trachélien (e), levator humeri (b c), and the slip homologous to the upper digitation of the human levator anguli scapular (f).
- Fig. 15. View of the dissection of the same muscles on the left side of the Wessel (Mustela vulgaris), to show the same muscles indicated by the same letters.
- Fig. 16. Dissection of the neck- and shoulder-muscles of the right side of the Rabbit.
 - A. The muscles "in situ" to show those homologous to the two foregoing, marked by the same letters, with the addition of the scapulo-clavicular (k) and the sterno-clavicular (l) attached each to the clavicle (x).
 - B. The scapula of the same side turned over with its muscles attached, to show the double sterno-scapular muscle (i i i') as seen from the deep surface, passing under the clavicle (x). It also shows the sterno-costalis muscle (n).
 - C. View of the deep or under surface of the clavicle (x), and sterno-clavicular ligament (x'), showing the attachment of the sterno-clavicular muscle (l) below, and the levator humeri $(b \ c)$ turned up.
 - D. View from the superficial aspect of the same, showing the relative





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- attachments to the clavicle (x) and sterno-clavicular ligament (x') of the following muscles, viz. scapulo-clavicular (k), the cleido-mastoid (b), the cleido-occipital (c), the levator humeri (b c) (clavicular fibres of the pectoralis major of the human subject), and the sterno-clavicular (l), including the subclavius.
- Fig. 17. Front view of the dissection of the muscles of the neck and shoulder of the Guinea-pig (Cavia vulgaris). A, the muscles "in situ," the lettering corresponding to the foregoing. B, the right scapula and its muscles with the rudimentary clavicle (x), detached from the trunk, dissected out and turned back.
- Fig. 18. Right side view of the same muscles of the Squirrel (Sciurus vulgaris) with corresponding lettering, showing also the sterno-costalis muscle (n).
- Fig. 19. Right side view of the corresponding muscles, with the same lettering, of the Norway Rat or Surmulot (Mus decumanus).

PLATE XI.

- Fig. 20. View of the left side muscles, taken from a dissection of a fawn of the Fallow Deer.

 a, sterno-mandibular (v. maxillaris) dividing into two slips, one (a') to the angle of the lower jaw, and the other (a') to join the homologue of the cleido-mastoid (b) and the rectus capitis anticus major (u), and to be attached with the latter to the basilar of the occipital, as seen in the Rabbit (in fig. 13); e, the acromio-trachélien attached to the transverse process of the atlas (1), and forming, with b, the levator humeri (b e). The figure also shows the sterno-scapular muscle (i).
- Fig. 21. View of the right side muscles of the neck and shoulder of a Donkey. The lettering refers to muscles corresponding to those of the last figure. The cleide-mastoid (b) passes, in this animal, to the mastoid process with the fibres of the rectus lateralis (w), instead of joining those of the rectus anticus major (u).
- Fig. 22. Front view of the muscles of the right side of the neck and shoulder of the Hedgeheg (Erinaceus curopaus). The lettering refers to the homologous muscles of the preceding. The acromio-trachélien (e) is here seen to form the levator humeri alone, and by its relation to the clavicular fibres of the deltoid (D) to foreshadow the closer union of these muscles which occurs in the two preceding figures. 1, the transverse process of the atlas.
 - P. Sternal fibres of pectoralis major. P'. Clavicular fibres of the same muscle, showing at their origin a close homology with the levator humeri (b c) in the next figure of the domestic Cat.
- Fig. 23. Right side view of the corresponding muscles of the domestic Cat, with the same lettering. X shows the position of the rudimentary clavicle, covered by the fibres of b and c, which form below the levator humeri (b c).

surface-peculiarities which meet the eye, were not sufficient to determine the real nature of the differences existing between the crania of different nations or individuals; that it was necessary to consider the arch and the base of the skull in their connexion one with the other, and to measure the relations of parts by means of distances and angles more systematically than had been done; and that if this were done it would appear that there were far more important variations in the antero-posterior direction in skulls than were suspected, or than existed in their breadth. The various forms of forehead, vertex, and occiput are noted by anatomists without sufficient knowledge how these local appearances are related to the structure of the cranium as a whole. Even such generally used words as dolichocephalous, brachycephalous, orthognathous, and prognathous, though efforts have been made to render them perfectly explicit, refer to varieties of form which have not been properly understood.

Mode of measurement.-It may be frankly admitted that probably the system of "geometrical drawing" recommended and described by Lucae* would have been preferable in some respects to the mode of craniometry employed by the writer, but most of the measurements were made before Lucae's method was published. Also it may be admitted that vertical sections, which afford the most accurate of all bases for profile views, might have been used to a greater extent than they were; but there was a difficulty in asking that a number of skulls in Museums should be bisected for examination by a private individual. Still some bisections have been obtained, sufficient to illustrate the substantial accuracy of the system in most instances followed; and while mentioning this, it is right to say how much indebted the writer has been to the late Professor GOODSIR and Professor Allman of Edinburgh, and to Professor Allen Thomson, for their kindness in placing specimens at his disposal. The craniometer which the writer has employed is not without its advantages, being an instrument fitted to determine the exact relation of any point in space to a given starting-point. The skull is suspended in a horizontal frame by means of two pointed screws, one on each side, which work in fixed supports; and by other screws moving on slides it may be set with any two points on a level. A vertical bar, which can be slipped up and down, slides along the side of the frame, and bears a sliding horizontal bar directed inwards, to which a needle may be attached at right angles if necessary, in either a vertical or longitudinal direction. The frame, the bars, and the needle are all marked off in inches and tenths, and by this means the vertical and horizontal distance of any point on the skull from the place of suspension is easily determined and marked on paper, so that by a series of such points a diagram may be constructed. With the assistance of a sheet of ruled paper such a diagram may be constructed in a few minutes from a series of figures not occupying more than a couple of lines. It is convenient to register the number indicating the vertical position of a point with that indicating the horizontal position placed immediately below it, like the denominator of a vulgar fraction; while backward and downward directions may be respectively distinguished from forward and upward directions

^{*} Zur Morphologie der Rassenschädel, 1861, p. 16.

by placing — before the figure. Thus the following formula is sufficient for the construction of a diagram of the Irish skull 54:—

If to this formula there be added the breadth at as many points as may be desired, and the positions of those points, the utmost completeness may be given to it. By this system of notation the outline of the profile of every skull in every Museum might be recorded with the greatest accuracy, either from measurements taken with the craniometer described, or from geometrical drawings, or tracings of vertical sections.

Close to the upper and posterior margin of the external auditory meatus there is in almost every skull a slight pit, which may be termed the postauricular depression, left between the margin of the meatus and the main part of the pars squamosa. from its minute size and its centrical and constant position, is well fitted for receiving the points of the screws by which the skull is kept in the craniometer, and for being the starting-point from which the horizontal and vertical distance of other parts may be computed; and even when the screws have to be fixed to some other part, as happens occasionally when the pits are ill marked, it is easy to correct the record of measurements so as to calculate the distances from the usual place. In making the craniometric measurements on which this communication is founded, the skull in each instance was first placed in the frame with the base upwards, and, while so fixed, the position was taken of the fore and hinder limit of the foremen magnum, the occipital tuberosity and the point midway between the tuberosity and upper angle of the occipital bone which is distinguished as the midoccipital point, also the spheno-occipital suture, the posterior limit of the hard palate in the middle line, the lowest point of the alveolar process between the middle incisors and the tip of the nasal spine. The skull was then turned round and fixed with the arch upwards, the sliding screws being replaced to support it at exactly the same level as when it was reversed. The positions of the midoccipital point and nasal spine were again taken, to secure against error from strain, and the accurate adjustment of the skull having been thus tested, one could proceed to take the position of the upper angle of the occipital bone, the middle point of the sagittal suture, its anterior extremity, the fronto-nasal suture, the point on the frontal bone midway between these two last points, and also the most prominent point of the glabella.

Sometimes the exact point which was to be considered as the one wanted for measurement had to be determined a little arbitrarily, but this did not occur to any great extent. Thus a difficulty of more than a line would often occur as to the exact point to be marked as occipital tuberosity; in infants a point in the anterior fontanelle had to be chosen as representing the junction of the frontal and parietal bones in the middle line; and often a difficulty would occur at the upper angle of the occipital bone from the presence of an os triquetrum; but this was usually solved by taking the point at which the limbs of the lambdoidal suture would have met had they passed up uninterruptedly. With regard to the spheno-occipital suture, while in young subjects the anterior margin of the

somewhat open suture was the point taken for measurement, in adult skulls the rough line was chosen which seems to form the limit between the two bones. In fact the writer supposed, in common with anatomists generally, that this line was the mark of the obliterated suture, but afterwards, suspecting the accuracy of this view, made a special examination and found that it was really the mark of attachment of the pharynx to the sphenoid bone, and that the position of the spheno-occipital suture was slightly further back, and disappeared without leaving any trace.

Besides the positions of the points on the skull already mentioned, it was necessary that another should be registered to indicate the extent of the anterior cranial fossa. For this purpose the outer edge of the foramen opticum was chosen, the needle being rested on it as far up as possible. It is quite true that a point in the mesial section would have been somewhat preferable to this, especially as the position of the foramen opticum varies a little in height in its relation to the floor of the anterior cranial fossa, but the point chosen has suited sufficiently well, and was the best which could be got in the circumstances.

The various points now indicated being marked on ruled paper and joined by means of straight lines, a diagram is produced on which it is easy to measure a great variety of lines and angles. The measurements on which the present communication is founded have been made from such diagrams, and the lines and angles measured are indicated by descriptive names.

In making any series of craniographic observations, it is desirable not merely to select carefully the measurements to be registered, but to determine in what position the skulls shall be placed for the sake of comparing their outlines; and in the present instance, as it was proposed to measure by vertical and horizontal distances, it was natural to attempt establishing a criterion by which a skull might be placed precisely as it had been during life when the person stood in the erect posture. On looking, however, at the numerous methods of placing the skull adopted by different observers, it is impossible not to see that we now touch on a most unsatisfactory part of the subject, and a fruitful source of error. This will appear more evidently in the sequel; meanwhile it is sufficient to state that all the plans proposed are arbitrary, and if any one of them be true, it has at least not been proved to be so. In the Anatomical Museum of the Queen's College, Galway, are placed the skulls of two criminals (skulls 49 and 50) with casts of the features taken immediately after death by Dr. Croker King, at that time the Professor of Anatomy and Physiology; and on comparing the skulls with the casts, it is clearly noticeable that they are not placed in the position which they occupied in the erect posture, and when looking directly forwards during life, by following any of the plans which have been recommended, or by using the rule which has been adopted in the present inquiry. In all probability the skull does not possess any two points which in every instance lie in one vertical plane, or one in front of the other in a horizontal plane; and it is quite likely that it will always remain impossible to determine from the characters of a skull what was its precise position in the erect posture of the body. But

the only modes by which accurate information can be arrived at appear to be by extensive examination of the living subject, and by comparison of the skulls of the dead with carefully taken casts of the features. Early in these inquiries it occurred to the writer that doubtless the same principle of balance came into play in the support of the head as in the rest of the body, but that as the proportions of the head are very different at different ages, the position of balance on the vertebral column must be different at different periods of life. Proof will be adduced in support of this proposition further on; but it is necessary now to mention that it was with the view of collecting evidence on this point that the arbitrary horizontal line was chosen which has been used throughout the present investigations, and which was obtained as follows. The skull to be examined having been placed in the frame with the base upwards, a flat slip of wood was rested on the condyles and posterior boundaries of the foramen magnum, and allowed to project backwards; the skull was then rotated till the wooden slip was in the horizontal position. Now, probably in most cases the posterior limit of the foramen magnum is close to or rests on the arch of the atlas, and in elderly subjects it is not uncommon to find a flat facet at the back of the foramen magnum indicating this contact. If, therefore, the deepest parts of the upper articular surfaces of the atlas and the posterior arch of that bone lay in a horizontal plane, the skull would be correctly placed by the means now described. Unfortunately, however, this is not always the case; and all that can be maintained is that some approximation to accuracy is thus reached, which will probably be admitted on examination of the majority of the accompanying diagrams. To eliminate, therefore, as much as possible an element in which uncertainty is inherent, the measurements in the present inquiry have been all made so as to be independent of the position of the skull, except in the section in which the question of position is itself considered.

To prevent the possibility of any mistake, it may be proper to explain at the outset that all statements which will be made with regard to national forms of crania are to be understood as referring simply to the results of the measurements of the skulls enumerated in the General Table; and as it will be observed that in the case of some nationalities the specimens are too few in number, and in many instances the history is less complete than would be desirable, the statements founded on those specimens are not put forward dogmatically as of general application, but rather as suggesting probable laws which must be left for other observers to investigate. When the form of the Greek skull is spoken of, it is of course only the Modern Greek which is alluded to; and the peculiarities exhibited by each of the five Greek skulls examined makes the writer particularly regret in this instance the paucity of specimens and the incompleteness of their histories. So also it is much to be regretted that there is no record of the particular part of Germany from which any of the eight German skulls examined have been obtained, and that therefore it has been impossible to distinguish between North and South German.

I. CRANIUM PROPER.

Extent of arch and base-line (General Table, columns 6, 7, 8).—When it is considered that one of the most marked peculiarities of the human skull is the great elongation of the arch and shortening of the base, it becomes interesting to know what relation the length of arch has to the length of base at different ages and in different nations. The length of arch has been measured along the middle line of the roof, from the fronto-nasal suture to the back of the foramen magnum, while the direct distance between the same points has been taken as base-line. The distance from the occipital tuberosity to the foramen magnum is best included along with the arch, because, whether its variations or its morphological constitution are regarded, it appears to be closely associated with the arch, and because it has been found in making the measurements that the tuberosity is not a good land-mark, but varies in position according to its prominence. The foramen magnum is best considered as part of the base; for although, when we take into account the development of the medullary canal, and the appearance of parts in the lower animals, the strict base of the skull must be looked on as commencing at the front of the foramen magnum, or opposite the condyloid margins of the basilar ossification of the occipital bone, still we shall find that such a close connexion exists between the angles at which the foramen magnum and the floor of the anterior cranial fossa respectively lie to the intermediate portion of the cranium, that it is convenient to consider all three as belonging to the base.

The general average proportion which the length of the arch bears to the base-line in the adult may probably be estimated at about 2.70:1; but it varies considerably both in individuals and nations.

So far as one may judge from the feetal skull examined, it would appear that before the middle period of feetal life the arch is considerably less developed in proportion to the base than it is in the adult, but that afterwards the proportion is altered by the great growth of the arch, so that in the later months it is about three to one. In new-born infants and in children it more frequently exceeds than falls short of this proportion; the average found in five skulls of new-born infants being 3.06:1, and the average in seven children of ages varying from one to ten years being 3.07:1. The ten-years-old skull is the only one of these seven in which the base-line has acquired a length which might be permanent, while in four of them the arch is such as might be found in the adult. We may judge therefore that the base-line continues to clongate after the arch has acquired its permanent dimensions.

On examining the proportion of arch to base-line in adults we find, as we shall also find in all other measurements, that the variations in individuals of one nation are so great that the minimum figure in a nation in which the proportion is high is always within the limits of variation found in nations in which it is low; and that therefore it is very necessary to compare different specimens of one nation together. Much the smallest proportion of arch to base in the series of skulls examined is in the Esquimaux skull 77, in which it is 2.28:1; but in the other Esquimaux it is 2.67, as high as the

average of the French skull. The Kafir, the Negro, the Australian*, the Greek, and the French skulls show little difference in this proportion, their averages varying from 2.61:1 in the first to 2.67 in the last. The Irish have the proportion highest, 2.89:1; and next them come the Chinese*, closely followed by the German, 2.80, and these by the Hindoo, 2.78. The highest proportion found among the Irish skulls, it will be observed, exceeds the average proportion in infants.

Proceeding to analyze the effect of sex on the proportion of the arch to the base, it appears that in five out of seven nationalities, in which several skulls have been examined, one or more of which have been females, either the highest or lowest extreme of proportion is in a female; and the cause of this is that in the female the base-line is almost always short, while the extent of the arch is in some instances as great as in the male, and in others diminished to a greater proportional extent than is the base. To clear the averages from the disturbing effects of the introduction of a varying number of female skulls in different nationalities, and to exhibit the peculiarities of sex now stated, a Table has been made exhibiting the average proportion of arch to base-line in males and females separately.

• In order to obtain a sufficient number of measurements by which to judge of the proportions of arch to base, and of the parts of the arch, in Chinese and Australian skulls, the writer has availed himself of the "geometrically drawn" figures given by Lucae in his work 'Zur Morphologie der Rassenschädel,' and made on them measurements the results of which have been combined with the measurements given in the General Table, in estimating averages, and are therefore here given. The columns are numbered the same as the corresponding columns in the General Table.

	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.
Lucae, XXI. 7, Chinese from Java, with Javan blood XXI. 5,, XXI. 3,, XXI. 6,, with Javan mother XXI. 8, Pure Chinese. Chinese, 85 of the General Table	4·3 4·1 4· 4·3	5.6 5.4 5.3	5· 4·9 5·2 5·3	15·2 14·6 14·6 14·9	5·4 5·1 5·2 5·2	2.81 2.86 2.80 2.86	72 73 74 81	84 87 96 100	3·7 3·7 3·5 3·8	5·1 4·8 4·7 4·7	4·4 4·4 4·5 4·7	72	91 95
Average	4 31	5.41	5.03	14.76	5.23	2.82	80	92	3.75	4.76	4.43	78	92
Lucaz, XXII. 10, Australian male XXII. 11,	4.6 4.6 3.8 4.4	5.3 5.2 5.3 5.2	5·5 4·3 4·7 4·3 4·9	15-1 13-6 14-5 13-4 14-5	5·5 5·4 5·5 4·9 5·5	2·74 2·51 2·63 2·73 2·63	92 75 88 71 84	110 81 90 81 91	3·8 3·5 3·6 3·4 3·7	4·6 4·6 4·7 5·	4·7 3·9 4·2 3·8 4·3	76 82 76 78 72 74 74	97 102 84 91 80 86 95
Average	4.27	5-17	4.82	14.27	5.37	2.65	82	93	3.57	4-68	4.27	76	90

It must not be forgotten that four of Lucan's Chinese skulls are from persons with Javan blood by the mother's side.

	Numbers	Males.			Numbers	Females.			
•	measured.			Pro- portion.	measured.	Arch.	Base.	Pro- portion.	
Esquimaux	g	13.85	5.6	2-47			<u> </u>		
French	g 6	14.	5.36	2.61	3	13.96	5.	2.79	
Hindoo	3	14.2	5.1	2.78	[" [-			
Greek	5	14.2	5.3	2.69				1	
Negro		14.3	5.52	2.58		14.3	5.15	2-77	
Scotch	4 1	14.36	5.3	2.70	2	14.85	5.3	2.78	
Australian	6	14.42	5.45	2.64	1	13.4	4.9	2.73	
Kanaka	1	14.6	5.5	2.65	1	14.7	5.	2.94	
Chinese	6	14.77	5.23	2.83	į			1	
German	5	14.82	5.24	2.82	3	13.73	4.96	2.76	
Kafir		15.06	5.66	2.65	1	13.5	5.3	2.54	
Irish	3 6	15.23	5.23	2.91	3	14.56	5-1	2.85	

This Table shows constant shortness of base-line in the female, while the arch is only sometimes shorter than in the male. The proportion of arch to base-line is usually larger in the female skulls examined than in the male, as is held to be the rule by Welcker and Ecker; but in the German, Irish, and Kafir skulls, in which this is not the case, the reason is that though the base-line is shorter than in the male, the arch differs still more from the male arch.

The Table also brings out more distinctly than before the very large proportion of arch to base in the Irish, which will probably be found to be a marked and general national character. It further shows that the proportion of arch to base in a nation may vary from either arch or base-line deviating from the average, or from deviation of both; and therefore probably the actual length of these measurements is of more value than the proportion of one to the other. The most striking and altogether remarkable fact is that in uncivilized nations, while the length of the arch is very variable, the length of the base-line is always great. Thus in length of arch the three Kafir skulls exceed all other skulls in the foregoing Table, with the exception of the Irish, but the Kafir base-line exceeds the Irish by not much less than half an inch. In the Esquimaux skull 77, and the Carib skull 88, both of them skulls of most savage type, the base-line reaches the extraordinary length of 5.9. In only one European skull, the French 24, has a base-line of 5.7 occurred, while in only two others, the French skull 22, and the Scotch skull 38, it has amounted to 5.6. The low proportion of arch to base in the French skulls depends on a concurrence of a long base-line with a short arch, three out of the six males having the base-line 5.5 or more, and four of them having the arch 13.8 or less. The Irish, German, and Chinese skulls very closely agree in average length of base-line; but the Irish have greater proportionate extent of arch, because in them the arch is absolutely greater, reaching as it does to a greater length than has been obtained in any other skulls in the series. The shortest arch and shortest base are found united in the Peruvian skull 78; the Scotch skull 37 has as short an arch, but its base-line is longer.

In only one out of the fifteen female skulls examined does the base-line reach to 5.4,

and in two to 5.3; in the remainder it varies from 4.9 to 5.2, while we have already seen that in the child ten years old it reaches 5.1. It appears from this that the additional growth by which the base-line in the male comes to exceed that found in the female takes place after the age mentioned. It might therefore be naturally supposed, as occurred to the writer, that the facts which have now been detailed are mere results of greater development of the frontal sinus in the adult male than in the female and child, and in the savage than in civilized races; but this is not the case; for we shall find that though development of the frontal sinus does add to the base-line, growth of the base of the skull from the front of the foramen magnum forwards to the level of the foramina optica plays a much greater part in the addition which takes place.

Regions of the base.—According to the system of measurement pursued in the present inquiry, the base of the skull is represented by three lines, the middle one of which, the foramino-optic line, corresponds pretty nearly with the 'basicranial axis' of Huxley; while the hindmost displays the length of the foramen magnum, and the foremost the length of the orbit; the length of the base-line varying according to the length of these distances, and the angles at which they are placed one to another.

Foramen magnum (General Table, column 25).—This is the region of the base which presents least characteristic variation in length. It usually measures from 1.4 to 1.5. The extremes met with are 1.25 and 1.70. Little or no distinction of a national character is discoverable in its variations; and although skulls which have a markedly long base-line sometimes owe the peculiarity in a small degree to the length of this foramen, as Esquimaux 77 and Kafir 69, there are other skulls, such as 23 and 56, and the infant skull 11, which combine a long foramen magnum with a short base-line. The proportion borne by the foramen magnum to the base-line does not appear to undergo any constant alteration in the passage from infancy to adult age.

Orbital length (General Table, column 27).—This measurement likewise has the same proportion to the base-line at birth as in the adult. In the six-years-old as well as in the twelve-years-old child it is of a length which might be permanent; in the adult male it is slightly but distinctly greater than in the female. The national variations are well worthy of remark. If influenced by the belief that large development of the frontal part of the skull accompanies intellectual capacity, we might expect to find a greater orbital length in civilized than in savage nations. But this is not the case. Lucae, in his comparison of European and Australian skulls, pointed out that the floor of the anterior fossa of the skull was quite as well developed in the latter as in the former*; and this observation is quite in harmony with the present measurements, although un fortunately he has accompanied it with the hasty remark, not borne out by his drawings, that the Australian development is defective in the upper part of the frontal region.

In the meantime, however, let us consider simply the orbital length. The range of its variation in the great majority of skulls is from 1.8 to 2.1. In the Australian, Negro, and Kafir the average is high, while in the French and German it is shorter than in any

^{*} LUCAE, op. cit. p. 40.

but the brachycephalous Americans. But the amount of orbital length in the Australian, Negro, and Kafir is not sufficient to account for the great length of base-line of these skulls; the Greek, the Hindoo, and the Irish skulls agree with them in the average orbital length, while in these, especially in the Hindoo and Irish, the base-line is much shorter. At the same time the orbital length is to be recognized as one element on which length of base-line depends; and examination of the different skulls of each nation shows that the extent of the orbital length usually varies in harmony with that of the base-line.

The adult skulls in which the orbital length is less than 1.8 are the male and female French skulls 23 and 26, the female German 34, and the Chinese 85, all of them well-proportioned skulls. The anomalous male French skull 89 cannot be taken into account, since in it the shortness of the orbit (1.6) is obviously the direct result of early synostosis of the lower part of the coronal suture on each side, and has been compensated for by undue height of the cranial arch, the result being a very peculiar deformity.

In the following skulls the orbital length is above 2·1, viz.:—in Burke, in the Greek 48, in the male Kanaka, in the Australian 73, and the Negro 62 it measures 2·15; in Hindoo 60 and in the Hottentot Chief and the Idiot it measures 2·2; and in the Carib 88 it reaches the extraordinary depth of 2·4. The list thus contains some of the very ugliest skulls examined; and of the nine only three, namely, the Greek, the Hindoo, and the aberrant skull of Burke, belong to civilized nations.

So far, then, as these observations extend, it would appear that shortening of the orbital length never occurs as a feature of degraded national type, but that elongated orbital length does so occur. Where it does so, the probability is that the elongation is in connexion rather with development of the frontal sinus or diploë than of the cranial cavity. It produces antero-posterior elongation of the nasal fossæ in their upper part, which may perhaps be favourable for the expansion of the olfactory nerve and production of a keen sense of smell.

Foramino-optic line (General Table, column 26).—This line, extending from the front of the foramen magnum to the point midway between the foramina optica, and thus indicating the middle portion of the base, corresponds, as has been said, pretty closely with Mr. Huxley's "basicranial axis"*, which, starting from the same point, passes to the junction of the sphenoid and ethmoid bones in the anterior cranial fossa. Probably the one line is as well chosen as the other; and it may be frankly admitted that a line drawn to the angle of separation of the middle and anterior cranial fossæ in front of the optic commissure might be preferable to either.

In new-born infants and in children the foramino-optic line is about equal in extent to the orbital length, whereas in the adult it usually exceeds it. In the ten-years-old skull it is of such length as might possibly be permanent, being of a length not uncommon in the adult female. The extent of this line in the female is less than in the male, the difference between the sexes in this respect being still more distinct than in the ex-

^{*} Journal of Anatomy and Physiology, November 1866, p. 67.

tent of orbital length. The Table shows an apparent exception to this statement in the

		Males.		Females.			
	Number measured.	Orbital length.	Foramino- optic line.	Number measured.	Orbital length.	Foramino- optic line.	
German	5	1.93	2.13	3	1.8	2.03	
French	6	1.95	2.24	3	1.83	2.03	
Scotch	5	2.	2.22	2 :	1.95	2-3	
Irish	6	2.05	2.09	. 3	1.91	1.93	
Greek	5	2.05	2.18		- 0-		
Kafir	3	2.05	2.36	1	2.	1.95	
Hindoo	3	2.05	2.1		_	1	
Negro	5	2.07	2.32	. 2	1.92	2.12	
Australian	2 :	2.1	2.2		- 5-		
Kanaka	1	2.15	2.3	1	2.05	2.1	

case of the Scotch skulls; which arises from one of the two female skulls having the exceptionally long foramino-optic line of 2.4, a mere individual aberrancy. Occurring, however, in a skull known beyond all possibility of question to be female, and in other respects having female characteristics, it affords a good illustration that the characters of sex, although more constant than those of nationality (HUSCHKE*), are, like them, not all present in every instance. Examining the length of the foramino-optic line in different nations, it is found to be shortest in the Irish, Peruvian, and Hindoo, partly accounting for the shortness of base-line in those skulls, and to be longest in the Kafir and Negro skulls, which have the base-line long. Also, an inspection of those skulls in which the feramine-optic line amounts to or exceeds 2:4 shows that length of this line. like great orbital length, is a character liable to be found in skulls of low type. But it is likewise long in others which cannot be so classed. Thus the female Scotch skull 43, already alluded to, and the French skull 24, in both which the foramino-optic line measures 2.4, and the Kafir skull 45, in which it is 2.45, are not skulls of a low type; but the French skull 20, in which this line measures 2:45, is the worst proportioned of the six French males, and has a depression at the top of the coronal suture which has probably been the direct result of spheno-parietal synostosis. In the Negro 61 and the Carib 88, the foramino-optic line measures 2.4; in Esquimaux 71 and Kafir 68, it measures 2.5; in the Maori 2.55; while it reaches the unwonted length of 2.6 in the Spanish pirate, a skull which in various respects may be described as being as peculiar in character as the man to whom it belonged is said to have been savage.

Angles at which the three divisions of the base lie one to another (General Table, columns 28, 29, 30).—The angles which the foramen magnum and the orbital length respectively form with the foramino-optic line may be termed the foramino-basilar and orbito-basilar angles. The number of degrees between the line of the foramen magnum and the line of orbital length on the upper side may be termed the cranial curve; for if we look on the cranial cavity as the continuation of the cylinder of the spinal canal

curving rapidly forwards, and consider the incisura of the frontal bone as being morphologically its distal extremity, then the angle mentioned indicates approximately the amount of curve which exists. When the foramino-basilar and orbito-basilar angles are equal, the foramen magnum and the orbital length lie at an angle of 180°, or, in other words, are parallel. According as the orbito-basilar angle is greater or less than the foramino-basilar, the cranial curve is less or greater than 180°.

The foramino-basilar and orbito-basilar angle and the cranial curve require to be all considered together; and this is more particularly the case, since it is a remarkable fact that, while the foramino-basilar and orbito-basilar angles have a wide range of variation, the adult cranial curve varies within much more restricted limits; or in other words, the difference between the foramino-basilar and orbito-basilar angles in any skull being limited, these angles are to a considerable extent interdependent. Thus in the Kafir skull 68, the foramino-basilar angle measures 128°, and in the female Kafir it is 150°; the orbito-basilar angle of the skull of the Hottentot measures 129°, and that of the Greek skull 46 measures 150°; but a cranial curve 21° more or less than 180° is probably never to be met with in any undeformed skull. One female French skull, 25, has a foramino-basilar angle of 162°, while another, 26, has an orbito-basilar angle of 128°; but these two angles could not coexist in any skull except with very great deformity; were they to do so they would give a cranial curve of 214°; and the only skull in which so great a curve is approached is 91, the skull with the base driven in, in which the curve is 212°.

While in adult European skulls the cranial curve seldom falls short of 180° by more than three or four degrees, and more frequently exceeds that amount, in the six fœtal skulls examined it varies from 150° to 176°. As, however, those in which the amount of curve is lowest are skulls of fœtuses of the 4th, 7th, and 8th month, while the highest amounts occur in a fœtus of the 5th and another of the 8th month, it would appear that the increase of curve proceeds more rapidly in one skull than in another. A smaller degree of the same irregularity is seen on comparing the five skulls of new-born infants; these seem, however, clearly to show that the cranial curve is not quite completed at birth, while an examination of the skulls of older children shows that at least in some instances it is completed before the third year.

,		Ŋ	Iales.		Females.				
	Number measured.	Foramino- basilar angle.	Orbito-basılar angle.	Cranial curve.	Number measured.	Foramino- basilar angle.	Orbito-basilar angle.	Cranial curve	
Kafir	3	1333	144	169 <u>°</u> 3	. 1	150	144	18Ĝ	
Esquimaux	2	1321	1414	171		i			
Negro	5	136	139	177	2	137	138	179	
Kanaka	1	129	132	177	1	138	129	189	
Greek		138	1403	1771				-	
Hindoo:	3	128	127	180					
Australian	. 2	1391	1381	181		ì	İ	1	
French		1412	139	1815	3	1452	138	1874	
Scotch		1357	1333	182	2	1394	1364	183	
Irish	6	1432	139	1843	3	1471	140	1871	
German	5	$146\frac{2}{3}$	$139\frac{1}{3}$	187	3	146	1411	1843	

A perceptible difference exists in respect of cranial curve between the skulls of different nations, and this difference displays a distinct relation between the amount of curve and the length of base-line. Taking males only into account, the greatest cranial curve is found in the German skulls, in which the average amounts to 187°, and next to them come the Irish; while in the Kafirs the average is lowest, amounting to 169°; and next, them come the Esquimaux and Negro. Thus the German and Irish skulls, which have the base-line short, are highly curved, while the Kafir and Negro skulls, which have the base-line long, are less curved. So also, excepting in the case of the Germans, the average curve of the female skulls is greater than the curve of the males of the nation to which they belong. These differences recall to mind Virchow's theory of kyphosis in the skulls of Cretins, according to which, in cases of premature synostosis of the base, increased curvature supplies a means of enlargement of the cranial cavity, which to some extent compensates for the arrested basal growth. Without venturing to agree with that theory in its details, as an explanation of the pathological form of the skull in Cretins, to which further reference will be made, it may be allowed to allude to it as the first recognition of the principle that increased curving of the base of the human skull is a means by which the cranial cavity may be enlarged*. In the estimate, however, of the cranial curve now being made there is included an important element not taken into account in Virchow's angula sellæ (sattelwinkel) or any modification of it, viz. the foramino-basilar angle, which indicates the degree in which the commencement of the inferior wall of the cranial cylinder is bent forwards from the spinal inlet; and since, as has been seen, this angle compensates and to a great extent varies with the curve estimated in this paper by the orbito-basilar angle, and which Virchow estimated by means of his angula seller, it is quite evident that the increase of cranial curve now spoken of as a means of expansion of the cranial cavity is entirely different in detail from Virchow's kyphosis. The size of the foramino-basilar and orbito-basilar angles individually varies according to a totally different law from that which regulates the cranial curve; and seeing that accordingly as the foramino-basilar angle is large or small, so also to a certain degree is the orbito-basilar, the base of a skull may be termed level when both angles are large, and steep when both are small.

The base of the skull at birth is more level than afterwards, and it is still more level before birth. In the fœtus of the fourth month, in consequence of the want of development of the arch as compared with the base, a remarkable steepness or want of opening of the foramino-basilar angle is combined, contrary to the rule in the adult, with a very large orbito-basilar angle. In all the other skulls of fœtuses and infants examined the orbito-basilar angle is above the adult average, and in most of them the foramino-basilar angle is likewise large, although in the eight months' fœtal skull 6 and the infant

^{*} It will appear in the sequel that diminished curving of the base may likewise become a means of enlarging the cranial cavity. Increased curving is only a means by which the base accommodates itself to the growth of the roof-bones when its own growth is limited; but if the arch and base be each of a given length the cranial capacity will be increased by diminishing the curve of the base.

skull 10 it is small, and makes the cranial curve likewise exceptionally small. Scarcely any national distinction can be determined from the present measurements in respect of levelness and steepness of base, both conditions being met with in most of the national lists; but it may be noted that all the three Hindoo skulls have marked steepness of base, and this is one of the elements which make those skulls shorter and higher than most of the others.

The averages of the basal angles in females show in the Table in each case a somewhat greater levelness of base than the males of the same nation. Some of the most level bases belong to females, and are accompanied with great cranial curve. As illustrations of this, the French and German female skulls 25 and 34 may be mentioned; and it may be remarked that in this, as in many other matters, a specially feminine character may be seen to be given to a skull by the persistence of the form of childhood.

The following list of skulls in which the cranial curve is 174, or a smaller amount, will serve to show that very frequently a slight cranial curve is combined with more than average steepness of base. The most marked instances in which this is not the case can be somewhat explained away. Thus in the Greek skull 46 the slightness of the cranial curve, as well as the length of base, depends on a peculiar idiosyncrasy which will be made the subject of comment hereafter (p. 165); the compressed and flattened American skulls 95 and 96 owe their want of curvature, as will be subsequently shown (p. 167), to the mode in which they have been deformed; and in the synostotic skull 89 the same arrest of the forward growth of the cranium which has caused the brain to push the roof of the skull upwards, has caused it to push the base downwards in the region of the orbito-basilar angle.

Numbers in General Table.	Description.	Bose-line.	Cranial curve.	Forumino- busilar angle
46	'Greek	5•6	17Ž .	142
63	Negro	5.7	170	139
64	Negro	5.4	174	138
68	Katir	5.8	165	128
69	Kafir	5.7	168	137
77	Esquimaux	5.9	164	129
81	Spaniard	5.2	172	126
83	Turk	5.1	174	133
86	Maori	5.7	167	126
88	Carib	5.9	. 171	125
89	Synostotic French	5.	172	140
93	Hunchback	5.35	169	126
95	Compressed Chinook	5.3	173	141
96	Fiattened American	4.95	166	144

This list also shows that slightness of cranial curve is usually an accompaniment of long base-line; the Turkish skull is, however, a good example of slightness of curve and short base-line going together; and it is fair to note that in the French skull 22 there is a marked instance of a long base-line and a more than average cranial curve going together.

Length of arc of the different portions of the arch (General Table, columns 3, 4, 5, 9, 10). Young skulls.—It is well known that in early life the frontal and occipital parts of the skull are smaller as compared with the parietal than in the adult*; and in accordance with this an examination of the Table shows that in feetal life, infancy, and childhood, the length of the frontal and of the occipital portion of the arch both bear, as a general rule, a smaller proportion to the length of the parietal portion than they do in the adult. It is not, however, to be supposed that the parietal has a predominance over the frontal and occipital region from the first, and that these grow proportionally larger in an equable manner; for setting aside the consideration that in the young embryo the wall covering the posterior cerebral vesicle is much larger than what is afterwards to become the parietal and frontal part of the cranium, and confining attention to the measurements in the Table, it appears that from the fourth month of feetal life till birth, while the disparity between the parietal and occipital regions is diminishing, the disparity between the parietal and frontal is increasing. Five of the six foetal skulls examined have the occipital smaller in proportion to the parietal than it is in the skulls of the new-born infants, and four out of the five skulls of infants have the frontal smaller in proportion to the parietal than it is in the feetal skull. The conclusion from this is that the parictal has grown more than the frontal, and the occipital more than the parietal in the later months of feetal life. But after birth the frontal, which has been for a time the slowest growing region, begins to expand most rapidly of the three, while the occipital region still continues to expand more rapidly than the parietal. This is indicated in the General Table by the children's and adult skulls having the proportionate length of the frontal. as compared with the parietal region, much higher than the new-born infants, and likewise having the proportion of the occipital to the parietal region higher than the infant skulls, though not greatly so.

It further appears, on estimating the percentage of the whole arch formed by each region respectively, that already in the youngest fœtus examined the frontal region forms as high a proportion of the whole arch as it does in the adult, but that at birth the proportion is temporarily diminished; while the percentage belonging to the parietal region goes on diminishing, and the percentage belonging to the occipital goes on slightly increasing, from the youngest fœtus examined till the adult skulls are reached †. No doubt the result is obscured by the large amount of individual variation which exists in different skulls, and to arrive at a precise estimate of the average extent of each region at different periods of development would probably require the examination of a large number of skulls; but a careful review of the figures justifies the statement now made.

Taking a survey of the growth of the cranium from the earliest period, the following account is probably correct. At first, in the early embryo, the occipital region is much

^{*} Huschke, 'Schädel, Hirn, und Scele,' p. 46.

[†] The percentage which each portion of the arch forms of the whole, though calculated, is omitted from the General Table, to prevent unnecessary multiplication of figures.

the longest; then, when the cerebral hemispheres begin to expand, growth passing forwards, the parietal grows so rapidly as to exceed its proportion in the adult, and the frontal so rapidly as to attain to the adult proportion: in the latter half of feetal life, when the hemispheres push backwards over the cerebellum, growth goes on again more rapidly in the back than in the fore parts of the cranium, so that while the parietal region maintains its proportional length to the whole arch, the proportion of the occipital region increases, and that of the frontal diminishes: lastly, after birth, the proportional length of the occipital region increases slightly, and that of the frontal region much more markedly till the adult proportions are attained, which appears to be at a variable period within a few years after birth.

Adult skulls.—In the adult skull the individual variation in the proportional length of the different regions of the arch is very considerable, and the national variation for the most part only slight, while no sexual variation can be safely deduced. Such national variation as exists, however, is of a definite kind. The proportional length of the frontal region as compared with the parietal varies pretty nearly pari passu with the proportional length of the occipital region, or, in other words, the variation in proportion arises almost entirely from lengthening and shortening of the parietal region. Thus the French and German skulls have both the largest proportion of frontal region and the largest proportion of occipital region to parietal; and more markedly the Chinese and Australian skulls have both the frontal and occipital region of considerably smaller length as compared with the parietal than is usual. This is the more remarkable in the case of the Chinese, since it has been already noted that they have the additional childlike peculiarity of shortness of the base as compared with the arch †.

Length of chord of different portions of the arch; (General Table, columns 11, 12, 13, 14, 15).—In estimating the length of the different regions of the arch, it seemed advisable to measure not merely the arc of each portion, but likewise its direct length or chord; for it seemed possible that local bulgings and flattenings might produce variations

- * It may indeed be noted that the highest proportions of occipital to frontal are nowhere to be found in the list of female skulls measured; but the writer is inclined to impute this to the uniform absence of that degree of muscularity which leads to great prominence of the occipital tuberosity and consequent increase of the surface length of the occipital bone. It would not be surprising, however, if an examination of a large number of female skulls were to show on the average a diminished proportion of both occipital and frontal are to the parietal when compared with male skulls; such a result would harmonize with Huschke's statement, that in the female the capacity of both the occipital and the frontal segment is smaller in proportion to the parietal than in the male; and with Weisback's account of the low and small forehead of the German female.
- † The measurements of the three portions of the arch in different nations given by Dr. Barnard Davis in his 'Thesaurus Craniorum,' the elaborate description of his magnificent collection do not altogether corroborate these statements, especially with regard to the Chinese. But the object of the present paper being tentative, written as it has been rather in the hope of pointing out explicit methods of comparison than to dogmatize on a slender basis with regard to characteristics of particular nations, it has been deemed advisable rather to add this caution than to alter the statement in the text.
- ‡ These are the measurements termed by Carr's height of the anterior, middle, and posterior cranial vertebra Carr's, Grundzüge einer neuen Cranioscopie, p. 16.

in the length of arc while the chord remained unaffected. The measurement has not proved necessary for the purpose for which it was undertaken, but it has served to lay bare some points of interest. In most of the nationalities examined, including the German, Scotch, Irish, Greek, Negro, Kafir, Maori, and Australian, the ratio of the

	P	roportion to	parietal are	of	Proportion to parietal chord of				
	Occipi	Occipital arc.		Frontal arc.		Occipital chord.		l chord.	
	Average.	Extremes.	Average.	Extremes.	Average.	Extremes.	Average.	Extremes.	
2 Esquimaux	98	100 97	108	109 108	88	90 87	107	110 104	
8 German	94	102 83	104	126 91	. 82	90 75	100	120 90	
9 French	94	118 85	102	118 93	87	97 80	103	115 97	
8 Scotch	93	102 86	100	109 92	85	94 81	99	107 90	
9 Irish	91	110 71	100	107 94	80	91 67	97	102 91	
4 Kafir	91	97 85	100	104 94	84	90 77	97	102 91	
7 Negro	88	108 73	100	110 87	82	100 68	97	107 86	
5 Greek	88	102 78	98	108	81	88 73	95	104 91	
3 Hindoo	87	88 37	100	110	84	88 81	101	114 95	
2 Peruvian	85	87 83	100	110 90	90 .	95 85	107	117 97	
2 Kanaka	84	85 84	94	102 87	81	83 80	94	102 86	
7 Australian	83	92 71	93	110 81	76	82 72	90	102 80	
1 Maori	81	•••••	90		74		88		
6 Chinese	80	100 72	92	100 84	78	91 72	92	100 86	

occipital to the parietal chord is considerably less than that of the occipital to the parietal arc; and the ratio of the frontal chord to the parietal is also a little less than that of the frontal to the parietal arc. This means that in those nations the frontal part of the arch is more curved than the parietal, and the occipital more curved than either. In the French, according to the average of the nine skulls examined, the ratio of the frontal to the parietal chord is slightly greater than that of the frontal to the parietal arc; and on looking at the measurements of the individual skulls, it is seen that this is the case in four instances, that in two instances the proportions of the chords and arcs are the same, and that in the remaining three instances the figures indicating the proportionate lengths of the frontal chords are only very slightly smaller than those of the frontal arcs. Therefore, so far as these nine skulls bear evidence, the French differ from the nations above mentioned in having the parietal region of the arch as much curved as the frontal, or more so. In this the French skulls agree with the Hindoo, the Chinese, and the Kanaka; but these three nations present the additional peculiarity that in the occipital region the

proportional length of the chord approaches very near to that of the arc, so that the amount of curvature in the three regions in these nations is nearly equal. The Chinese skull from the Edinburgh Collection is an exception to this statement; but the calculations made from Lucae's drawings agree completely one with another (p. 123). This same phenomenon of near correspondence of the proportional lengths of the chords with the lengths of the arcs of the different parts of the arch is a marked characteristic of the skulls of infants; we have therefore here another interesting child-like peculiarity of the Chinese skulls. Both the Peruvian skulls present the peculiarity of having the parietal region distinctly more curved than either the frontal or occipital, and in this they agree with the compressed and flattened American skulls; but how far the peculiarity is referable to the slight compression which the Peruvian skulls have both to a certain extent undergone is an open question. It may be interesting to note that measurements taken from the cast of the Tartar skull described by Professor Huxley* as an example of extreme brachycephalism give 93 and 111 as the proportions of the occipital and frontal arcs to the parietal estimated at 100, and 92 and 112 as the proportions of the occipital and frontal chords, thus indicating an equally distributed curvature. Dolichocephalism and brachycephalism will be treated of in a subsequent page; meanwhile the writer may be allowed to state, without further explanation, that he believes this equally distributed curvature to be a brachycephalic characteristic.

A further and more detailed acquaintance with the curves of the arch may be sought by examining the angles formed by lines passing from point to point; and this will be now attempted.

Angles expressive of the form of different parts of the arch (General Table, columns 16 to 24). Young skulls.—In the fœtus and in infants the forehead springs at a considerably greater angle from the roof of the orbit than in the adult. Whereas the average orbito-frontal angle varies in different nationalities from 77° to 83°, and only one adult skull (46) has an orbito-frontal angle exceeding 90°, in the fœtal skulls and those of infants the same angle exceeds 90° in all except two instances, and in one infant it even reaches 104°. In childhood it suffers a little diminution, but principally it gets smaller at a later age, when also the orbit is deepened and the frontal sinus enlarged by the growth forwards of the upper part of the face, as will be subsequently shown. Thus also the orbito-frontal angle is generally larger in females than in males.

The frontal bone, in the progress of development, changes its curve not only where its orbital and frontal plates meet, but also in the course of its frontal plate; for the midfrontal angle appears to get smaller in the passage from fœtal or infantile life to child-hood, and again enlarges in the passage to the adult state; or, in other words, the bone becomes more curved in childhood and is again flattened in subsequent growth. In the four-months' fœtus the midfrontal angle is of an average adult size, in the two five-months' fœtuses it is decidedly smaller, in the seven-months' fœtus it is again larger, and in the eight-months' fœtuses it is of a size which would be very flat in the adult. These varia-

tions may be to some extent the result of mere individual peculiarities of the few skulls examined, but they agree with what is observed with the unassisted eye; for it is clear enough, when attention is attracted to the circumstance, that a fectus eight months old has a flatter forehead than a fectus five months old, or a child a few months after birth. The skulls of infants present great differences in this respect, but the six skulls of children from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 10 years old, have all got the midfrontal angle of a size which would be accounted small in the adult, and therefore indicating a greater curvature than usual.

As is the case with the frontal region, so also with the parietal and the part of the occipital above the tuberosity; the curve does not go on uniformly increasing or diminishing, but at one period of growth is flattened and at another more convex. The parietal angle, indicating the curve of the mesial edges of the parietal bones, is as large in the three focuses of the fifth and seventh month as it is in the adult, whereas in the fectus of the fourth, and in the two of the eighth month it is remarkably small; at birth it has begun again to enlarge, and in childhood apparently it reaches the condition which remains in the adult. On an average the parietal angle is smaller in women than in men, the feminine form in this respect resembling that of the young skull. The midoccipital angle, which indicates the curve of the subcutaneous part of the occipital bone, is flatter in five of the six feetal skulls than in any of the six infant skulls, and of a size very common in the adult, whereas both in infancy and childhood it is of an average size much smaller or more prominent than in the adult. It is to be observed, however, that the flattening of this part of the skull in the passage from childhood to adult life is no doubt due, in part at least, to the laying on of additional substance in the neighbourhood of the tuberosity.

In perfect keeping with the changeful development of the curves just mentioned is the variation at different ages of the transverse curve of the calvarium between the parietal eminences; for, as is palpable to the most careless observer, that curve rises rapidly towards the middle line in the fœtus, becomes in childhood remarkably flat, and again rises in the middle line as growth proceeds. This will be again referred to.

Of the remaining angles illustrating the curvature of the arch, the most important to be noticed in connexion with the form of the young skull are the fronto-parietal angle and the angle of the tuberosity, both of which are decidedly flatter in the infant than in the adult. The fronto-parietal angle is also flatter in women than in men. The occipito-parietal angle is rather more prominent in the infant skull than in the adult. The postforaminal angle is very variable, both larger and smaller numbers of degrees occurring in the fœtuses, infants, and children than in any of the adult averages. The postforaminal angle of the female is on an average smaller than that of the male; but this is to be accounted for by the lighter weight of the female skull, making it less liable to be affected by the gravitation changes described in the next paragraph. It may be stated generally with regard to the infant skull, that the flatness of the fronto-parietal angle and of the tuberosity, and the rapid curvature of the parts of the arch between these two angles, together with the great development of the parietal region of the arch, and

the shortness of the base, are the circumstances which give the characteristic outline to its profile.

Elderly skulls. Gravitation changes.—It is a well recognized fact that the skull continues to undergo change of form after adult life is reached. LAVATER in the general appearance of the head, and Frorier* in the skull, depict the retreat of the forehead characteristic of old age, but the precise nature of the change and the causes on which it depends have not been recognized. The changes referred to result entirely from the operation of mechanical causes, and consist in a yielding of the skull in consequence of its own weight. Precisely as the apparently solid glacier flows down its valley at a rate too slow to be appreciated by direct observation, so the skull falls gradually down by its own weight and that of the contained brain. The condyles of the skull are supported on the vertebral column, and by the process of gradual yielding the basal part of the skull is driven in, from the occipital tuberosity behind, to the fronto-nasal suture before. Thus the postforaminal angle is flattened out, while the angle of the tuberosity and the orbito-frontal angle are made smaller. At the same time the skull is increased in breadth, being made to bulge out at the squamous suture; this bulging being partly produced by a forcing open of the angle between the squamous and petrous parts of the temporal bone, and partly by the depression of the outer end of the petrous part to a lower level than its inner end. This lateral bulging is very characteristic, and ought not to be lost sight of by the artist in representing old age. In the production of these alterations of form it is plain that the cooperating causes are weight of the skull and its contents, softness of the bone, and lapse of time; therefore the larger the skull the more likely they are to be developed in a marked manner; and if the bone be more than usually yielding they may be developed at an earlier age than usual, even though the skull be not remarkably large. This is probably the explanation of the very considerable gravitation changes in the skull of Burke the murderer, who, although somewhat past middle life, was by no means an old man at the date of his execution. Most probably these changes begin in a slight degree in all skulls at an early period of adult life; and it may be the lot of some one who has better opportunities of investigating the subject than the present writer, by a comparison of a number of adult skulls of different ages, to demonstrate the changes of form which the skull undergoes in the passage from twenty to thirty, forty, or fifty years of age. The accompanying Table gives a list of the skulls from the study of which the above observations have been made; and if the angles given be compared with the corresponding angles of other skulls, they will illustrate the way in which by gravitation changes the base is driven in. In the German 29 the forehead appears to have escaped being bent back, and instead of its being so the parietal region has become flattened out.

^{*} FRORIEP, Die Charakteristik des Kopfes nach dem Entwicklungsgesetz desselben, 1845.

-	Angle of tuberosity.	Postforaminal angle.	Orbito-frontal angle.
French 24	124	163	77
German 28	122	158	76
German 29	125	154	80
Old Officer	120	166	74
Corfu 45	120	153	75
Irish 51	125	153	78
Irish 52	130	150	75
Burke	120	166	76

A much more astonishing instance of driving-in of the base of the skull is seen in the anomalous skull (91) belonging to Professor Thomson. In it the part of the occipital bone between the tuberosity and foramen magnum has not yielded, while the parts further forwards have given way to an astonishing extent. This may be accounted for by the great thickness of the occipital bone in this instance; or, if the theory be true that it is a baker's skull driven in by the weight of heavy trays carried habitually on it, it is likely to have happened that the pressure began to be applied after the superior and lateral ossifications of the occipital bone were united, and before synostosis of the elements of the base had been completed. These observations on this remarkable skull are, however, put forward subject to the criticisms of Professor Thomson, in whose possession it is.

National differences in angles connected with the arch.—These will be most rapidly noticed by grouping the peculiarities of each nationality together. The writer has studied them with the aid of averages in which the sexes have been kept separate, and regard has been had to the skulls in which gravitation changes have taken place; but it will be sufficient to state the conclusions at which he has arrived, leaving the reader to verify them from the data in the General Table.

In the Scotch skulls the orbito-frontal angle is decidedly below average, that is to say, the forehead slopes more than usually back on the floor of the skull; also the skull rises more rapidly than usual behind the foramen magnum, and the angle at the occipital tuberosity is unusually flat.

The Irish, on the contrary, have the occipital bone extending very horizontally backwards from the foramen magnum, as indicated by the large postforaminal angle. They have the curve of the forehead unusually prominent, as indicated by the smallness of the midfrontal angle.

The Germans, like the Irish, have the midfrontal angle prominent; they have great curvature at the occipital tuberosity.

The French have the orbito-frontal angle decidedly smaller than even the Scotch; they have coronal flatness as indicated by large fronto-parietal angle, and at the back of the head bend rapidly at the tuberosity.

While in the different European nations the midparietal angle retains an average size of about 133°, the Esquimaux, Kafir, Negro, and Australian agree in having it larger,

a circumstance possibly connected with the length of base-line in these nations; that is to say, that the length of the arch being completed before the length of the base-line, the extremities of the arch are possibly separated by continued opening-out of the midparietal angle in the latest growth of the base. The Kafir, Negro, and Australian all have the orbito-frontal angle large, the Kafir having it remarkably so. The Kafir, further, has the midfrontal angle flatter than the Negro, otherwise the curves of these skulls, as exhibited by angles, are very similar.

In the Australians the curvature of the roof is very evenly distributed, as is indicated by the smaller than usual fronto-parietal angle in conjunction with the large midparietal angle; the midoccipital angle is prominent.

The two Kanaka skulls agree in presenting remarkable curvature both at the midparietal and occipito-parietal angles; and in both, but especially in the male, a slope backwards is given to the whole skull by the small orbito-frontal angle and the flat midfrontal, and the unusually flat angle at the occipital tuberosity.

The Peruvian skulls are remarkable for the extreme flatness of the midfrontal and midoccipital angles, and extreme smallness of parietal and postforaminal angles. They have the orbito-frontal angle small.

The Hindoo skulls have the fronto-parietal and midparietal angles small, the orbitofrontal rather small, and the midoccipital angle flat.

The Greeks have the orbito-frontal angle large, the fronto-parietal small, the midoccipital flat, and the postforaminal angle small.

The size of the orbito-frontal angle in different nations appears to be a matter of sufficient importance to demand some further consideration. Among the loose notions which are popularly current about the form of the skull, and which have been with too little care incorporated among the beliefs of scientific men, and been allowed to assume among them a more definite and erroneous shape than they have in the unscientific mind, is one to which allusion has already been made, that amplitude of forehead is a criterion of high development both in individuals and nations, and that nations of inferior intellectual development have low or retreating foreheads. The unscientific man in expressing such a notion considers nothing but external appearances, and his statements are not without a certain foundation of truth, for increased height and breadth of the whole cranium, and large proportion of arch to base are among the circumstances which may make the forehead well developed; but when ethnologists go the length of imagining that in the lower types of humanity there is a local deficiency in the frontal part of the skull, giving room for only a small development of the anterior lobes of the brain, they fall into an anatomical error, as the measurements of most characteristic skulls will serve to show. It has been already shown that the Kafirs, Negroes, and Australians have a great development of the orbital length, and now we have occasion to observe that in these same skulls, but especially in the Kafir, the forehead springs very erectly from the orbit. This may be seen by a comparison with European skulls.

In three Kafir males the average number of degrees of the orbito-frontal angle amounts

to 843; in four Irish males, emitting from consideration the two which have undergone gravitation changes, it amounts to 841; in three Greek, omitting both the skull which has gravitated and another (46) in which the orbito-frontal angle is anomalously large, it amounts to 83; in three German, omitting the two which have gravitated, it amounts to 821; in two Australian, 82; in five Negro skulls, 81; in five Scotch males, omitting the Old Officer, it amounts to 784; and in five French, omitting the Old Knight, it amounts to 763. Thus there are Kafirs and Irish at one end of the series, French and Scotch at the other, and Germans and Negroes in the middle.

Whatever of inaccuracy has been imported into the measurement of this angle by the choice of the optic foramen as the posterior limit of the frontal floor, instead of a point in the mesial plane, makes the conclusion with regard to the Kafir, Negro, and Australian all the more trustworthy; for in these races the tendency of the lesser wings of the sphenoid as they pass outwards is to rise more than in European skulls, and thus to raise the optic foramina more than usual above the level of their origin, which makes the estimate of the orbito-frontal angle less than if it had been measured on a mesial section. But, further, an examination of some of the skulls, tracings of the mesial sections of which have been preserved, will be of itself sufficient to show how little a large orbito-frontal angle is to be trusted as an index of a superior type of skull. The Negro skull 63, a skull of a very inferior type, and the Australian skull 73, which, though rather well developed for an Australian skull, is yet a thoroughly characteristic specimen of that race, have the orbito-frontal angle respectively 83° and 82°; while the German skull 29, an extremely well-developed skull, has an orbito-frontal angle of 80°, and the young Scotch female skull 43, which, notwithstanding its defects, is a much more finely proportioned skull than Negro 63, has the same angle measuring only 74.

Deep frontal angle (General Table, column 32).—The testimony obtained by measurement of the angle formed at the foramen opticum by lines from the fronto-nasal and fronto-parietal sutures, and which may be termed the deep frontal angle, corroborates the conclusion that a forehead retreating on the floor of the anterior cranial fossa is by no means a character of the least advanced races. Indeed a glance over the list of diagrams will show that a certain proportion exists between the deep frontal and orbitofrontal angles, so that it may be considered the normal condition at different ages and in different races for these angles to be together nearly equal to two right angles. The most extreme instances of the sum of the two angles falling short of 180° is the Carib skull 88, in which it is only 167°, the deviation being dependent in great measure on the largeness of the frontal sinus. The most extreme instances of the sum of the two angles exceeding 180° are the large British skull 92, in which it amounts to 188°, and the fiveyear-old skull 16, in which it reaches 186°; and in both these it is the great length of the frontal part of the arch as compared with the orbital length which causes the deviation. The average sum of the orbito-frontal and deep frontal angles in adult male skulls, omitting, as before, those which have undergone gravitation changes, comes to about 176° alike in the Kafir, Negro, Australian, Hindoo, Greek, Scotch, French, and Esquimaux skulls; but it rises to about 180° in the German and Irish, which have a high proportion of arch to base-line; and in the Kanaka, Maori, and Peruvian skulls it sinks to 173° and 174°.

The deep frontal angle gets regularly larger from fætal up to adult life, as the frontal bone gets larger in proportion to the rest of the arch; or, to put it differently, it may be said that the increasing length of the frontal bone pushes down the fore part of the ethmoid and bends it on the sphenoid.

Area of the frontal, parietal, and occipital parts of the diagrammatized profile (General Table, columns 40 to 46).—So far as the examination of angles and of measurements of arch and base has gone, the present inquiry has shown no reason for the belief that frontal development is more important or nobler than development of the other cranial regions; nor is any evidence to that effect to be got by comparing the areas of the different regions. The calculation of the areas has for the sake of simplicity been made on the angular figures produced by joining by means of straight lines the series of points already enumerated as selected for measurement. Thus the area of a trapezium has been measured in the case of the frontal region, a pentagon in the parietal, and a hexagon in the occipital region. The results are therefore only approximate, but they are sufficiently accurate for practical purposes.

It is remarkable that in the relative proportions of these three areas, no national nor sexual differences whatever are exhibited. Unfortunately the writer is unable to say how far this statement is applicable to the Chinese and Australian skulls, in which the parietal part of the arch was found habitually to predominate over the frontal and occipital parts; for Lucar's figures do not furnish sufficient details for making the calculation in the same way as it has been done in other skulls. But on comparing the average area in those nationalities of which three or more specimens have been measured, viz. Scotch, Irish, French, German, Greek, Negro, Kafir, and Hindoo, it is found that the variation in the occipital area is only 1.56 per cent., in the parietal area 1.19, and in the frontal 1.74 per cent., a result equivalent to no variation at all. This is the more remarkable as in the series of skulls examined, the variation among individuals in the occipital area reaches 11.98 per cent., in the parietal area 10.99 per cent., and in the frontal area 6.36 per cent. The Chinese skull 85 has the smallest proportion of frontal area in the whole series, on account of the shallowness of its orbits, and on the same account the synostotically deformed skull 89 has it nearly as small. Also among those which have the proportion of the frontal area smallest are the two female skulls, Irish and Scotch, 57 & 42, in which there is no spheno-parietal contact.

The same variability of the proportions of the three areas in individuals which is seen in the adult is observed also in young skulls. The figures expressing those proportions in the feetal and infantile skulls are almost all such as might be found in the adult; but the averages show a somewhat larger proportion of parietal, and a smaller proportion of occipital and frontal area. The difference, however, does not seem to be such as to account for the obvious predominance in bulk of the parietal region in young skulls, which probably depends most on breadth.

Distance of the arch at various points from the base (General Table, columns 33 to 39).

—To estimate the distance from arch to base in different parts of the mesial extent of the skull four diameters have been chosen, namely, a line from the level of the foramen opticum to the fronto-parietal suture, which may be termed the frontal depth, and three lines converging to the spheno-occipital suture from the midparietal point, occipito-parietal suture, and the occipital tuberosity, which may be termed respectively the parietal, occipito-parietal, and occipital depths. In comparing them the parietal depth has been chosen as the standard, not merely because it is the longest, but because, as may have been observed from what has been already stated with respect to the angles connected with the arch, it may be regarded as an axis behind and in front of which the arch of the skull expands in growth from birth onwards.

In the first four fœtal skulls the frontal depth is such as would be esteemed high in the adult, but in the two skulls of the eighth month it is low, and in the skulls of infants it is still lower; in childhood, however, it rises and appears to gain the adult proportion. The occipito-parietal and occipital depths are on an average slightly smaller in the fœtus than in the infant, and both, but more especially the occipital, increase in childhood.

These measurements, like those which have gone before, show that the sugar-loaf-like form of the infant skull is no mere mechanical result of compression during birth, but is prepared beforehand, and subsequently lost in the proper process of growth.

As in the case of other measurements, so also with those under consideration, the results in the adults of different nations are not altogether distinct at first sight; and it must be owned that on them alone a speculation could not be based with regard to the nationality of a particular skull; but by taking averages in those instances in which several skulls have been examined, national differences are indicated of a not altogether uninstructive kind. Comparing fourteen different races together (some of them represented, however, by only one or two specimens), and marking as high, moderate, or low the proportionate lengths of the frontal, occipito-parietal, and occipital depths as compared with the parietal depth, the following results are obtained:—

Proportion of the occipital, occipito-parietal, and frontal depths to the parietal depth. High proportions are marked a, intermediate b, and the lowest c.

,	Occipi	tal depth.	Occipito-1	parietal depth.	Frontal depth.		
	Average.	Extremes.	Average.	Extremes.	Average.	Extremes.	
3 Hindoo	71	69 72 c	90	88 92 c	71	70 b	
2 Peruvian	67	66 69 c	87	87 88 c	67	66 69 c	
2 Kanaka	70	68 7≅ c	92	91 94 ¢	67	66 68 °	
5 Greek	74	71 78 b	91	87 95 c	72	70 75 α	
l Maori	74	ь	92	c	72	а	
Australian	76	76 b	94	94 b	72	71 74 a	
German	76	73 b	93	90 b	72	69 77 70 78	
Kafir	76	70 82 b	95	93 b	73 •	70 78 a	
Negro	77	68 85 a	95	92 b	70	66 74 b	
French	76	71 80 b	93	89 98 b	71	67 78 b	
Scotch	75	68 81 b	94	90 97 b	70	$\frac{68}{75}$ b	
Irish	79	75 86 a	97	92 100 a	71	65 76 b	
Chinese	77	а	98	a	68	С.	
Esquimaux	77	76 78 a	96	96 96 α	72	72 73 a	

The Peruvian and Kanaka have all the three lines in small proportion to the parietal depth, and the Hindoo skulls only differ in having a greater frontal depth. skulls and the Maori resemble these only in the short occipito-parietal depth, but have the forehead high and the occipital tuberosity moderately projecting. The single Chinese skull is deficient in frontal depth, but is full behind. The Esquimaux have all three lines well developed as compared with the parietal depth, which means that the parietal depth is deficient, a consequence of the flatness of the parietal part of the arch formerly alluded to. The French and Scotch skulls have the occipital, occipito-parietal, and frontal depths all moderately developed in proportion to the parietal depth; the German, Kafir, and Australian skulls differ from them in having the frontal depth comparatively great, and the Negroes in having the occipital depth greater, while the Irish have not only the occipital, but likewise the occipito-parietal depth great. Probably the most important part of these results is that which relates to the Peruvians, Kanaka, Hindoos, and Greeks, as it bears on what will fall to be advanced in considering the proportion of height to length.

Height (column 72).—The height of a skull is estimated by different writers in various ways. Von BAER measures it from the plane of the foramen magnum to the most distant point of the vertex*. Mr. Huxley has preferred a line with definite termini, and

^{*} Crania Selecta, p. 4.

measures from the fronto-parietal suture in the mesial plane to the front of the foramen magnum*, thus making the line of height agree as nearly as possible with that which he has adopted from Mr. Busk† as expressing vertical direction, namely, a line from the fronto-parietal suture to between the openings of the ears. The present writer, however, appreciating, as Mr. Huxley has also done, that some skulls appear to stand vertically over the base while others slope upwards and backwards, has sought for a line the inclination of which will vary with the slope of the skull; and believing that the best criterion of that slope is the direction of the line of frontal depth, he has measured the height of the skull by a line passing upwards from the front of the foramen magnum parallel to the frontal depth. This line has the disadvantage in the present inquiry that its upper extremity does not exactly correspond with any of the measured points laid down in the diagrams, but the possibility of error from this source has been found to be very slight.

Proportion of height to frontal depth (column 74).—The proportion which the height measured as now stated bears to the frontal depth varies very much in different individuals; but, like steepness and levelness of the base, on which to some extent it is dependent, it is not a matter apparently of national distinction. It may, however, be remarked that those nationalities in which the parietal depth was great in proportion to the occipital, occipito-parietal, and frontal depths, have also a high proportion of height to frontal depth.

The question arises, how far excess of the line of height over the line of frontal depth depends on rise of the roof of the skull, and how far on sinking of the base; and this may be determined by examining the relation borne to the line of orbital length by the line uniting the midparietal and fronto-parietal points. This line, which is always cut by the line of height, sometimes, as compared with the line of orbital length, rises five or six degrees as it passes backwards, sometimes falls as much, but on an average and much more frequently is parallel with it in the adult. In the infant it rises greatly and most characteristically as it passes backwards; when the gravitation changes set in, they tend to make it fall; and in the compressed American skulls 95 and 96, and even in the French skull 27, which has probably been accidentally compressed by a head-dress in the manner described by Gosse 1, it rises enormously behind, as it does in no natural adult form. Thus it appears that in the normal adult skull the excess of the line of height over the frontal depth is dependent almost entirely on sinking of the base, but that in the infant and in artificially deformed skulls it depends in great part on rise of the roof. The conditions in the base of the skull which increase the excess of the line of height over the frontal depth are length of the foramino-optic line and greatness of the angle between that line and the line of frontal depth, which of course involves steepness of the base. Also, the proportional excess is increased by absolute shortness

^{*} Journal of Anatomy and Physiology, November 1866.

[†] Natural-History Review, October 1862.

¹ Déformations artificielles du Crane: Paris, 1855.

of the frontal depth, since the absolute excess of height produced by sinking of the base then forms a greater proportion of the whole frontal depth. Thus in the skull of the Idiot, 94, the greatest proportion in the whole collection is found, and in the Carib, 88, it is nearly as great.

Length (column 71).—As in the estimation of height, so in that of length, it seems advisable to make use of a somewhat different measurement from that usually adopted; for it is scarcely accurate to compare, as is generally done, diameters which do not pass between corresponding points, and which have nothing necessarily in common except that they happen in differently shaped skulls to be the points furthest asunder. The measurement of length in the present Mcmoir has therefore been made from the midoccipital point to the fronto-nasal suture, the midoccipital point being usually the most prominent part of the back of the head, and the fronto-nasal suture being chosen in preference to the glabellar prominence, because the glabellar prominence is exceedingly variable, and its development is of no importance as regards the general shape of the skull.

Proportions of height and breadth to length (columns 73 & 76).—By assorting the skulls of different nations according to the proportion which the height bears to the length, a highly natural arrangement results, those skulls being brought together for the most part which are similar in general form. Thus the Peruvian, Hindoo, and Kanaka skulls, which were associated in respect of the comparative distance of different points of the arch from the base, are again placed together, and a just and well-marked distinction is made between the Kafir and Negro, the French and German, and the Scotch and Irish. When the same groups of skulls are arranged according to the proportion of breadth to length, the result appears to be less satisfactory.

Average Extremes Average Extremes	Proportion of I	leight to Leng	5th.	Proportion of Breadth to Length,					
2 Peruvian 85 88 82 8 German 66 3 Hindoo 83 84 1 Chinese 93 1 Maori 91 9 French 82 2 Kanaka 78 78 3 Hindoo 81 1 Chinese 77 75 7 Scotch 80 4 Kafir 76 74 5 Greek 80 7 Scotch 76 72 1 Maori 77 78 2 Kanaka 77 9 French 75 84 2 Esquimaux 77 2 Esquimaux 74 74 75 7 Negro 74 78 4 Kafir 73 2 Australian 73 73 73 74 7 Negro 72 7 7 7 7 Negro 72 7 7 7 7 Negro 72 7 7 7		Average.	Extremes.	1	Average.	Extremes			
3 Hindoo 83 84 1 Chinese 93 1 Maori 91 9 French 82 2 Kanaka 78 78 3 Hindoo 81 1 Chinese 77 75 75 7 Scotch 80 4 Kafir 76 81 5 Greek 80 7 Scotch 76 72 1 Maori 77 7 September 75 84 2 Esquimaux 77 7 Negro 74 71 75 9 Irish 77 7 Negro 74 71 78 2 Australian 73 73 7 Negro 72	n n n n	0.5	83	1 Peruvian	98				
3 Hindoo 83 84 1 Chinese 83 1 Maori 91 9 French 82 2 Kanaka 78 78 3 Hindoo 81 2 Kanaka 78 78 3 Hindoo 81 1 Chinese 77 75 7 Scotch 80 4 Kafir 76 74 5 Greek 80 7 Scotch 76 72 1 Maori 77 78 2 Kanaka 77 9 French 75 84 2 Esquimaux 77 2 Esquimaux 74 74 2 Esquimaux 77 7 Negro 74 71 78 4 Kafir 73 2 Australian 73 73 74 74 60 7 Negro 72	reruvian	22		8 German	86	84			
1 Maori 81 78 9 French 82 2 Kanaka 78 78 3 Hindoo 81 1 Chinese 77 75 7 Scotch 80 4 Kafir 76 81 5 Greek 80 4 Kafir 76 81 5 Greek 80 7 Scotch 72 1 Maori 77 78 2 Kanaka 77 9 French 75 84 2 Esquimaux 77 2 Esquimaux 74 74 2 Esquimaux 77 7 Negro 74 78 4 Kafir 73 2 Australian 73 74 7 Negro 72	Hindoo	83 .			63	92			
2 Kanaka 78 78 78 3 Hindoo 81 1 Chinese 77 75 7 Scotch 80 4 Kafir 76 74 5 Greek 80 4 Kafir 76 74 5 Greek 80 7 Scotch 72 1 Maori 77 78 2 Kanaka 77 9 French 75 68 2 Kanaka 77 2 Esquimaux 74 74 2 Esquimaux 77 7 Negro 74 78 4 Kafir 73 2 Australian 73 74 60 7 Negro 72	Maori	81	04			80			
1 Chinese		70		9 French	83	90			
5 Greek 77 75 75 cotch 80 4 Kafir 76 74 5 Greek 80 7 Scotch 72 1 Maori 77 7 Scotch 78 2 Kanaka 77 9 French 75 84 2 Esquimaux 77 2 Esquimaux 74 74 2 Esquimaux 77 7 Negro 74 78 4 Kafir 73 2 Australian 73 74 7 Negro 72	4		78	3 Hindoo	81	79			
6 Greek 77 82 7 Scotca 80 4 Kafir 76 74 5 Greek 80 7 Scotch 76 72 1 Maori 77 9 French 75 68 2 Kanaka 77 2 Esquimaux 74 74 2 Esquimaux 77 7 Negro 74 71 9 Irieh 77 2 Australian 73 73 74 7 Negro 72	,		75			84			
3 Kafir 76 81 3 Greek 80 7 Scotch 76 72 1 Maori 77 7 Seotch 78 2 Kanaka 77 9 French 75 84 2 Esquimaux 77 2 Esquimaux 74 74 2 Esquimaux 77 7 Negro 74 78 4 Kafir 73 2 Australian 73 74 7 Negro 72	Greek	77		7 Scotch	80	85			
7 Scotch 76 72 I Maori 77 78 78 9 French 75 84 2 Esquimaux 77 75 9 Irish 77 78 9 Australian 73 74 74 75 9 Australian 73 74 75 7 Negro 74 75 78 9 Australian 75 75 78 9 Australian 75 75 78 9 Australian 75 75 78 9 Australian 75 75 78 9 Australian 75 75 78 9 Australian 75 75 78 9 Australian 75 75 75 75 78 9 Australian 75 75 75 75 75 75 75 75 75 75 75 75 75	t Kofir	76	74	5 Greek	80	76			
7 Scotch 70 78 2 Kanaka 77 9 French 75 68 2 Esquimaux 77 2 Esquimaux 77 7 Negro 74 75 7 Negro 74 78 2 Australian 73 73 66 7 Negro 72	Kam	,,,				89			
9 French	Scotch	76				77			
2 Esquimaux	O Farmali	~= (2 Kanaka	77	78			
2 Esquimaux	j rrenen	13		2 Esquimaux	77	75			
7 Negro	2 Esquimaux	74				79 74			
7 Negro				9 Irish	77	82			
2 Australian 73 74 75 72 72 72 72 72 72 72 72 72 72 72 72 72	7 Negro	74	78	4 Vaca	72	70			
60 7 Negro 72	2 Australian	73	13	* Raur	10	78			
				7 Negro	72	68			
	8 German	72			***	71			
) Irish	71		z Australian	71	72			

We find certainly the Peruvian at one extremity of the series, and the Kafir, Negro, and Australian at the other, which seems a natural arrangement; but the German skulls, placed next to the Peruvian, have no resemblance whatever to that form beyond the mere matter of proportional breadth, while on the other hand they have much resemblance to the Irish skulls which they are far separated from. The Kanaka, also, should come near the Peruvian rather than be associated with the Irish skulls, with which they have not the slightest affinity. The tendency of recent writers has been greatly to exaggerate the importance of breadth of skull as a distinguishing race character; and while Aeby* would divide skulls according to their breadth into two great groups, the stenocephalous and the eurycephalous, other writers have likewise given an enormous importance to breadth by estimating dolichocephalism and brachycephalism by nothing else than the "cephalic index." An inquiry into the origin of these terms may serve to show how objectionable this is.

The point which mainly struck the attention of Retzius was that certain skulls had less development and posterior projection of the occipital bone than others, and on that account were shorter from before backwards than they; he therefore termed those skulls brachycephalic, and others dolichocephalic. But to get a criterion of proportional length or shortness, it was necessary to select some measure with which to compare the length, and for this purpose Retzius selected the breadth; but he does not appear to have based his statements with regard to the dolichocephalism or brachycephalism of different nations on detailed calculations of the proportion of breadth to length in individual skulls; there is no evidence that he did so, and in his letter to Professor Duvernoy, in 1852, he expressly states that he does "not as yet wish to determine fixed measurements to distinguish them, but that ordinarily the longitudinal diameter of the dolichocephalous surpasses the breadth about a fourth, while in the brachycephalous the difference varies between a fifth and an eighth. But the most distinctive characters are:" he proceeds (the italics being his); and forthwith he lays down seven distinctions, not one of which is founded on the proportion of breadth to length, but of which the fifth consists in the height as compared with the length+.

In the end of the same year, in his letter to Dr. NICOLUCCI, he enumerates nine distinctions, the first of which is that in the dolichocephalous skulls the longitudinal diameter surpasses the transverse by about one-fourth, while in brachycephalous skulls it surpasses it by about one-fifth to one-eighth. Thus it appears plain that while M. DUVERNOY'S French taste for precision led Retzius into fixing certain proportions of length and breadth as characteristic of his two great classes of crania, Retzius never allowed himself to forget that the importance of his division lay in the classes being distinguished by a number of different characters, a circumstance well appreciated by the editor of his works, in his note on the letter to Dr. NICOLUCCI. But the effect of the subdivisions

^{*} Schädelformen des Menschen und der Affen, noticed in Henle's Bericht, 1867.

[†] Ethnologische Schriften von Anders Retzius, p. 118.

introduced by Broca and others * has been to convert, in the attempt at precision, a natural classification into one as artificial as the Linnean system in botany.

The superiority of Retzius's point of view over the more recent one is well illustrated by what has taken place with regard to German skulls. Welcker, writing from Halle. has pointed out the prevalence of a very high cephalic index in Germans, and ECKER has shown that in the South Germans it is still more remarkable; and on that account they throw those skulls into the brachycephalic group, and in this are followed by others: while GUSTAVE RETZIUS in defending the opinion of Anders Retzius, whose works he edits, labours to show that Welcker's estimate of the cephalic index in the German skull is too high. The measurements of the eight German skulls given in this memoir support Welcker's view that the German cephalic index is high, some of them, perhaps South Germans, being extremely broad; but they are all of them in their antero-posterior mechanism completely dolichocephalic in character. Their height compared with their length is low, and this is true of the broadest of them; they have the occipital squama prominent, and the tuberosity particularly so; and the arch of the profile, instead of sinking "precipitously" in the region between the parietal eminences, "forms an oval curve from the forehead to the occipital protuberance," all which are mentioned by RETZIUS in his letter to DUVERNOY as characteristics of the dolichocephalic skull, and are circumstances which, apart from any such historical consideration, point out the propriety of associating the German with dolichocephalic forms.

Sandwich-Islanders and New-Zealanders were both considered by Retzius as brachycephalic†. The description which he gives of a Sandwich-Island skull applies perfectly to the two skulls of the Kanaka race presented by Dr. Barnard Davis to Mr. Goodsir, and used in the preparation of this Memoir. Had Retzius classified according to a numerical rule, he would have had no difficulty in settling the place of any specimen; but he sought a natural classification which would take into account the whole character of the skull, and therefore he was "at first somewhat doubtful about the right place" of his Sandwich-Islander, and the thoroughly accurate decision to which he came was arrived at notwithstanding "the considerable length compared with the small intermastoid distance". The comparison which he makes between the Sandwich-Islander and the New-Zealander is quite borne out by the diagrams of the two Kanaka skulls and the Maori skull now before us. His words are, "compared with a New-Zealander's skull, this skull (the Sandwich-Islander's) shows much agreement therewith, but is distinguished from it especially by the compression referred to in the lower part of the occipital bone. The occipital bone in the New-Zealander is almost quite flat and more

^{*} THURNAM, Ancient British and Gaulish Skulls, p. 50; and LAING and HUXLEY, Prehistoric Remains of Caithness, p. 84.

[†] Ethnologische Schriften, pp. 65 and 66.

[‡] Dr. Barnard Davis, in his 'Thesaurus Craniorum,' vindicates the decision of Rezzivs on the ground of the proportion of breadth to length, the average of 116 Kanaka skulls of both sexes having given the proportional breadth as '80: it is noticeable, however, that the 64 males gave the proportion '79, which falls short of the arbitrary limit of brachycephalism.

sloping forwards than perpendicular." This is brought out in the diagrams by the large size of the angle of the tuberosity in the Kanaka skulls and its small size in the Maori. In addition to this difference and connected with it, must be noticed the large orbitofrontal angle and small midfrontal angle of the Maori, contrasting with the small orbitofrontal and large midfrontal angle of the Kanaka; for all these differences are summed up in this, that the arch in the Kanaka is pushed back over the base-line, and in the Maori is pushed forward.

It is to be regretted, however, that the same considerations which led RETZIUS to include the Sandwich-Islanders in the brachycephalic group did not lead him to admit the Hindoos also. For although the Hindoo skull is certainly dolichocephalic, according to the criterion derived from proportion of breadth to length, it is nevertheless short and high, and possesses the peculiarities of occipital bone characteristic of brachycephalic skulls, namely, commencement of the upward slope immediately behind the foramen magnum, flatness of the subcutaneous portion, and indistinctness of tuberosity, to which may be added almost constant want of symmetry in the occipital plate. It has greater height of forehead and greater proportion of total height compared with length than the Kanaka, and has more of the characters of the brachycephalic skull than the New-Zealander. The affinity of the Hindoo skull with the brachycephalic group was well brought out by the comparison of the parietal with the occipital, occipito-parietal, and frontal depths. Reverting to that comparison, it may be said that the small proportion of the occipital, occipito-parietal, and frontal depths to the parietal depth, together with the flatness of the midfrontal angle, in the short-headed Americans and Sandwich-Islanders shows a brachycephalism dependent on a natural antero-posterior compression of all the regions of the skull, and not of the occipital region only: from these the Hindoos differ only, as regards profile, in having a slightly higher forehead, while the Maori and the Greeks have the forehead both high and prominent, and have the occiput more prominent at the tuberosity. The Maori and Greek forms may be looked on as links between complete brachycephalism and the dolichocephalism of the negritic races and the west of Europe respectively.

Of course, this allusion to the Greek skull is to be held as merely referring to them as they are illustrated in the few examined. While the occurrence of brachycephalic skulls among the Greeks is indubitable, it is not to be forgotten that the dolichocephalic form has been suggested as the normal one in that nation; but it may be allowable to suggest the possibility that while the proportion of breadth to length may be variable, the profile view may perhaps adhere to the brachycephalic type. Of the five Greek skulls measured, only one has a dolichocephalic profile, and in that instance it is, as will be shown, the result of idiosyncrasy.

If it be too late now to restore the terms dolichocephalic and brachycephalic to a broader meaning than has latterly been given to them, and if skulls must needs be grouped according to the indications of some single proportion, the proportion of height to length will probably be a better basis on which to proceed than the proportion of

breadth to length. The short-headed Americans, the Polynesians, the Hindoos, the New-Zealanders, and the Greeks may well be contrasted with the Germans, the Irish, the Australians, and the Negroes, the one set being high and the other low in proportion to their length: and if the division cannot be made distinct without the use of Greek nomenclature, the one group may be termed hypselocephalic, and the other tapeinocephalic. But the truest expression of the facts will be obtained by instituting a subdivision of the brachycephali of Retzius under the name of angustiores, to which shall belong the Hindoo, Sandwich-Islander, and New-Zealander, probably the Greek, and possibly the Chinese. The mere establishment of such a division would set on permanent record that the brachycephali have more than one character. But whatever system of classification and nomenclature be determined on, it will always be artificial to associate with proportionally lofty skulls, like the brachycephalic Americans, low-lying skulls with dolichocephalic profile, such as the Germans, because they happen to have a cephalic index above 80°. These might be termed dolichocephali latiores.

Position of greatest breadth (see the diagrams).—The position of greatest breadth in well-developed skulls is always near the squamous suture, usually towards the place where it descends posteriorly. In ill-filled savage skulls it lies a good way up the parietal bone. By an ill-filled skull it is meant to express the condition of a mesial and two lateral ridges on the roof, with flatness of the adjacent surfaces. This ridged condition is a reversion, so far, to the infantile form, in which also the point of greatest breadth is placed high up; but the infant soon loses the ridged condition, and in childhood the roof of the skull becomes flatter than it is in the adult*. Probably the point of greatest breadth descends at this period (as in skulls 14, 15, & 16), and afterwards reascends temporarily (as in 17 and 18) when the mesial part of the roof begins again to rise, then lastly descends a second time as the bones become more uniformly convex in the latest expansion of the brain; for, as has been pointed out by Schaaffhausent, breadth of skull goes on increasing up to adult age, although the permanent length is reached already at the seventh or tenth year. Possibly the rise in the roof after its flat condition in childhood, as well as whatever temporary reascent there may be in the point of greatest breadth, may be explained thus, that the closure of the frontal suture, while the sagittal suture remains open, imposes a limit to the lateral expansion of the skull, and the inner margins of the parietal bones continuing to grow, at the same time that they are kept together by the connexions of the parietals with the frontal and occipital, and being pressed on by the growing brain below, are forced upwards and produce the mesial elevation, partly by rotation of the parietal bones on their inferior margins, and partly also by unbending them, in which they are assisted by the continuing increase in the breadth of the base of the skull . While these changes are taking place, and after they have

- * The persistence of this flatness in the female is referred to at p. 164.
- † HENLE, KEFFERSTEIN, und MEISSNER'S Bericht for 1865, p. 73.
- ‡ Professor Wyman in his recent "Observations on Crania," republished from the Proceedings of the Boston Society of Natural History, vol. xi., in writing about the much discussed variety of synostotic skull called sca-

ceased, the surfaces above and below the lateral ridges are rounded out in well-filled skulls; but in ill-filled savage skulls that rounding-out fails to take place, and thus there is the more prominent mesial ridge and the higher position of the point of greatest breadth. The rounding-out of the sides of the skull which occurs from the latest expansion of the brain is followed by that which is brought about by gravitation, as already described, and thus the increase in breadth does not necessarily cease on arrival' at adult age, but may continue through life. Another position of the point of greatest breadth, indicating a more degraded form than that in which it is placed high on the parietal, has only been met with in one skull in the list, that of the Idiot. In that skull the greatest breadth is between the mastoid processes, as it is in the Gorilla and Chimpanzee, a condition resulting from the poor development of the arch of the skull.

Radial measurements and position of the ear (columns 47 to 63, and 69 and 70).—As it is impossible on the living subject to obtain measurements extending from points in the arch to points in the base, it would often be convenient to obtain information as to cranial configuration by means of measurements radiating from the external auditory meatus, like those proposed by Mr. Busk*. In the present instance the postauricular depression has been chosen for convenience instead of the centre of the auditory meatus as the starting-point, and the radius to the midparietal point has been chosen as a standard with which the other radii are compared.

The radial measurements serve well to display the differences between the infantile and the adult form of skull. In the infant the radii in front of the midparietal radius bear a smaller proportion to that radius than they do in the adult, and the difference is greatest in those furthest forward. Thus the proportional distance of the fronto-nasal suture from the postauricular depression, counting the midparietal radius as 100, is 70, and in the adult European about 83. To understand the significance of this difference, let the midparietal radius be estimated at 5 inches in the adult, and let the infant's head be magnified sufficiently to bring that radius to the same length in it, then the distance to the fronto-nasal suture in the adult will be 4·15, and in the infant 3·5, or ·65 of an inch less than in the adult. Turning to the parts behind the midparietal point, it may be observed that the proportional distance of the occipito-parietal point from the ear is as great as in the Irish and Scotch skulls, and greater than in the French and German; the distance of the midoccipital point is slightly less than in the Irish

phocephalic, of which he describes various examples, the youngest of them being the cranium of a fœtus, remarks on the deficiency of height in the seaphocephalic skull, and asks why the compensatory growth required in consequence of the want of breadth does not take place upwards as well as in the longitudinal direction. The answer to that question may be gathered from the text. The height of the parietal region of the skull above the parietal eminences is obtained by the growth of the inner margins of the parietals, and when synostosis of those margins becurs, or when, as may be the case in some instances, there is but a single centre of ossification from which one 'biparietal' bone takes origin, not only is this source of upward growth lost, but the parts corresponding to the portions below the eminences of normal parietals are placed in a sloped instead of a vertical position.

^{*} Natural-History Review, October 1862.

and Scotch, equal to what it is in the French, and slightly greater than in the German; the average distance of the occipital tuberosity is less than the average obtained in any instance in which two or more adult skulls are compared, with the exception of the Peruvian and Kanaka. If the adult proportional distance of the occipital tuberosity from the ear be taken as 62, then if the midparietal radius in both adult and infantile form be again estimated at 5 inches, the distance of the occipital tuberosity from the ear will be 3.1 in the adult and 2.8 in the infantile form, giving a difference of .3 of an It would appear, therefore, comparing the infant skulls with the Scotch and Irish adults, that the shape of the arch is elongated in the passage to adult life by its anterior limb and, to a less extent, its posterior limb opening out round a part extending from in front of the midparietal point to behind the occipito-parietal suture. it be assumed that in all nations the infantile form is nearly the same (and on this point there is no accurate information), it would appear that the opening out of the posterior part of the arch is sometimes confined to the neighbourhood of the occipital tuberosity, for example, in the French, German, Hindoo and Greeks, while sometimes the whole arch may open up more and more from the occipital tuberosity forwards, for example, in the Kanaka and Peruvians.

National skulls, compared in respect of the radial distances, may be conveniently arranged in four groups.

The first group, with the radii both in front and behind the midparietal point short, includes the brachycephalic Americans, the Kanaka, and the Hindoos; and the French incline to that group.

The second group, with the radii both in front and behind the midparietal point long, includes the Australians, Esquimaux, and Negroes; and the Kafir lies on the borders between this and the next group.

The third group, with the radii behind long and those in front short, includes the Scotch and Irish, Chinese and Maori.

The fourth group, with long radii in front and short radii behind, includes the Greeks and Germans.

		Proportional length of radii from the ear, the midparietal radius being reckoned 100.					Actual		
		Radii behind the midparietal		Radii in front of the midparietal			length of		
		To occipital tuberosity.	Mid- occipital.	Occipito- parietal.	Fronto- parietal.	Mid- frontal.	Glabellar.	Fronto- nasal.	parietal radius.
	4 Infants		75	86	95	91	83	70	3.05
(2 Peruvians		67	79	97	88	80	75	4-8
First group	2 Kanaka 3 Hindoo		70 71	82 81	100	96	88	81	4.8
	9 French		71	83	102 98	99 98	86	82	4.53
	2 Australian	65	75 79	86	104	104	89 96	84 90	4-51
	9 T	63	70	87	103	103	95	89	4.4
Second group	7 Negro		79 77	86	101	102	97	87	4:51
	4 Kafir	63	77	86	101	100	93	85	4-65
	8 Scotch	63	77 79 79	86	99	96	85	81	4-6
Third group	9 Irish	64	79	86	99	100	90	82	4-56
	1 Chinese	63	79	88	97	95	87	81	44
Fourth group	I Maori		79 77	85	104	100	87	81	4-8
	5 Greek		71	82	103	102	91	86	4 56
	8 German	59	73	83	101	102	91	84	4:56

To the first of these groups there is scarcely any objection; for it must be admitted that the French skulls examined, with the exception of skull 24, exhibit a certain approach to the brachycephalic profile. But in the other groups there are great misplacements, sufficient to show that the radial measurements are not calculated by themselves to exhibit altitude and comparative development of the frontal and occipital regions. The key to this may be found on examination of the deviations in position of the postauricular depression as compared with the front of the foramen magnum. Thus the Kafir skulls exceed the French in height both actual and as compared with length, yet the radial measurements would lead to a contrary supposition; and the explanation is that in the Kafir the postauricular depression is one-fifth of an inch more elevated above the foramen magnum than it is in the French. So also the low-skulled Germans are associated with the rather high-skulled Greeks by the ear being a quarter of an inch lower in the German. The Maori and Greek are placed in opposition, the Maori seeming to have the anterior part of the arch weakly developed, and the Greek the posterior part weakly developed, but the postauricular depression is placed more than a fifth of an inch further forwards in the Maori than in the Greeks.

The circumstances which regulate the level of the postauricular depression as compared with the front of the foramen magnum are various. Yielding of the base, so as to make it transversely flat or concave as viewed from the exterior, obviously causes descent of the ear. Thus the gravitation changes of advancing years depress it, and the European skulls, with the exception of the Scotch, have it low, apparently because the base is not so massive and resisting as in races which have the base-line longer. Levelness of base-line is accompanied with a low ear, as in the French and German female skulls 25 and 34. Partly from this cause, and probably partly from slenderness of base, the ear is lower in the female than the male. The Germans have the ear particularly low, partly from slenderness of base, and partly, as may be supposed, from breadth; for growth of the lateral part of the brain will not only press outwards the lateral wall of the cranium but will depress its inferior limit. In all this there is evidence of what has been already suggested, that yielding from pressure is not a phenomenon confined to elderly skulls. Pressure is continually acting on the cranium, and produces most effect when the bones are least capable of resistance, precisely as has been shown by ENGEL* to be the case with the bones of the face.

The variations of the position of the postforaminal depression backwards and forwards are more difficult to explain; but it is evident that this point corresponds very nearly with the outer extremity of the upper border of the pars petrosa, which limits posteriorly the middle fossa of the base of the skull; therefore the further back it is it indicates the greater elongation of the temporo-sphenoidal lobe and the portion of the brain above it, with corresponding shortening of the occipital lobe and cerebellum.

Seeing that radial measurements extending to the roof of the skull are vitiated as an indication of height by the variable elevation of the ear above the base, probably the

^{*} Das Knochengerüste des menschlichen Antlitzes: Vienna, 1850.

radial measurements most likely to be useful to the craniologist, in conjunction with measurements of other kinds, are those extending to the occipital tuberosity and fronto-nasal suture, indicating the comparative development of the anterior and posterior parts of the brain.

II. THE FACE.

The most important points to be attended to in the measurements of the face are those affecting orthognathism and prognathism. The appearances so termed form the basis of a fundamental part of the classification of crania generally recognized, and in recent years it has been sought more explicitly to divide them by adding a third term and distinguishing opisthognathous skulls; yet it will not be hard to show that the opinions entertained by anatomists as to the causes which concur to produce these appearances are both vague and inaccurate.

So far as prognathism depends on the forward direction of the incisor teeth, or what may be designated prognathous dentition, it is simple enough and affords a stable foundation for classification; but besides that this is only one of the characters of prognathism originally enunciated by Retzius, the term is always considered as indicating projection of the face from underneath the cranium.

The broad contrast between the straight European face and the prominent muzzle of many savage tribes was evidently present alike to Camper in suggesting the facial angle, to Blumenbach in laying down the advantages of the norma verticalis, and to RETZIUS in distinguishing orthograthous and prognathous skulls; but these methods leave unexplained the nature of the anatomical peculiarities producing the appearances sought to be registered. Virchow* stopped forward, and estimating prognathism by the size of an angle, the "nasal angle," situated at the fronto-nasal suture and contained between two lines, one passing down to the nasal spine, and the other back to the posterior limit of the sphenoid bone, he laid down the rule that the shorter the base of the skull, and the more curved on itself, the more the face projected from underneath it. LUCAET, taking the zygomatic arch as a horizontal line, and drawing a perpendicular to it from the fronto-nasal suture, estimated the retreat of the forehead and the projection of the face by horizontal lines drawn from points in them and cutting the perpendicular at different heights, and concluded that there was no relation whatever between the form or extent of the base of the skull and the projection of the face. Then Welcker 1, choosing a nasal angle which differed from that of Virchow in that the upper of its containing lines passed from the fronto-nasal suture back to the foramen magnum, put forward the statement that the base of the skull and the projection of the face were indeed in relation, but that the relation was precisely the reverse of that stated by VIRCHOW. LANDZERT & agrees with VIRCHOW that the nasal angle and the angula sellæ exhibit an inverse ratio one to the other; but, appreciating that the nasal angle is no

^{*} Entwicklung des Schädelgrunde, 1867. † Op. cit. p. 40.

[‡] Wachsthum und Bau des menschlichen Schädels, 1862, pp. 48 & 140.

[§] Der Sattelwinkel und sein Verhältniss zur Pro- und Orthognathie, 1867.

true measure of prognathism, he recommends for that purpose LUCAE's system of ordinates.

Both VIRCHOW'S and WELCKER'S nasal angles are objectionable, because the upper of the containing lines is a mere compromise between the directions of two portions of the base which lie at a very variable angle one to the other; while Lucae's method fails by being dependent on a line which is neither horizontal, as he and Welcker suppose, nor gives any indication of the position of any part of the base; and the same objection holds good against setting the skull, for the determination of its prognathism according to Mr. Busk's method, in such a manner that a line from the ear to the fronto-nasal snture shall be vertical.

Virchow has been misled by his method. The skull of the Cretin 53 years old and that of the new-born Cretin figured in his work, do not get their peculiar characters of base, as shown in his plates, accounted for by the theory of "kyphosis" or increased curvature. The basilar process in both those skulls certainly lies at a less obtuse angle with the body of the postsphenoid, to which it is synostotically joined, than it does in the respective healthy skulls with which he compares them; but that circumstance is nearly made up for in the Cretin child, and in the adult Cretin is more than made up for, by the longitudinal axis of the sphenoid lying almost in a line with the cribriform plate of the ethmoid, instead of making the angle with it which is usual; so that a line from the fronto-nasal suture laid on the floor of the anterior cranial fossa and continued backwards, in the young Cretin touches, and in the old Cretin cuts the dorsum sellæ, while in the healthy skulls with which they are compared it lies far above that process. This altered relation of the sphenoid to the ethmoid accounts for VIRCHOW finding the "nasal angle" in the Cretins larger than in healthy skulls*. Had he taken the floor of the anterior cranial fossa as the upper of the two lines containing the nasal angle, he would have found that the angle was smaller in the Cretin skulls than in the healthy, and that however prognathous the appearance which the Cretin skulls may have presented during life, that appearance was not to be accounted for by projection of the face from under the floor of the cranium, but in some other way.

Welcker's statement that the greater the curvature of the base as estimated by means of the angula sellæ (Sattelwinkel) the smaller the nasal angle as he measures it, is undoubtedly true, but is uninstructive; for it is self-evident that the more the basilar process is bent down from the direction of the floor of the anterior cranial fossa the more will the upper of the two containing lines of Welcker's nasal angle be depressed, and that if in any skull the inclination of the basilar process were changed while the face was left untouched, the alteration in the angula sellæ and the nasal angle would only be different expressions of the one anatomical change. Seeing, then, that this nasal

^{*} This combination of what may be termed curving downwards of the presphenoid with curving upwards of the ethmoid is often met with in skulls of low type (see p. 169). It has occurred in the Australian skull figured by Lander; and had that writer caused the upper limb of his angula sellæ to pass from the upper surface of the presphenoid forwards to the fronto-ethmoidal or fronto-nasal suture, instead of following the plane of the presphenoidal surface, his conclusions must have been materially modified.

angle is subject to such variations altogether independent of the position of the face, it is no wonder that, as Welcker has observed, "the unprejudiced consideration of the whole skull in many instances exhibits a very different degree of prognathism from what the size of the nasal angle would indicate."

Lucae is in one sense right in keeping altogether out of view the position of the base of the skull in seeking to estimate the amount of what is generally understood by prognathism and orthognathism; for it is evident that the relation of the face-bones to the base was never examined by any of the writers who attracted attention to the degree of prominence of the face; but, on the other hand, his method throws no light on the concurrent causes of the general appearances which they have noticed, nor does it furnish an accurate index of the extent to which either of the appearances is present. For example, it might not be difficult to find two skulls tolerably similar in appearance as seen in vertical mesial section, and which might be considered to have as thus seen the same degree of prognathism, but one of which would have the auditory meatus placed on a much higher level than the other. In such a case the difference in position of the auditory meatus would be accompanied with a difference in the disposition of the zygomatic arch such as would materially affect both Camper's facial angle and the degree of prognathism as indexed by Lucae's method.

The foregoing remarks may serve to illustrate the uncertainty which invests the whole question of the varying relations of the face to the cranium, and may prepare us to investigate those relations in detail.

The orbito-nasal angle (column 24).—By this name may be designated the angle contained between two lines extending from the fronto-nasal suture, one to the optic foramen and the other to the tip of the nasal spine of the maxilla. The tip of the nasal spine is chosen rather than its root, because it is a more definite point, and because the nasal spine is a characteristic portion of the maxilla independent of the teeth. The orbito-nasal angle in the feetal skulls is of sizes such as are found in adults; but in the seventh and eighth month fœtuses it is smaller than in those of the fourth and fifth months. In the infants at birth it has attained a greater size than it has either before or afterwards, but as childhood advances it becomes rather smaller than the adult average. Thus, if prognathism were to be taken as meaning projection of the face from underneath the floor of the anterior cranial fossa, infants would have to be considered as exhibiting the maximum of prognathism, notwithstanding that in them the face is far smaller in proportion to the cranium than it is in the adult. Observation on the living subject will fully verify in this respect the results of the measurements here given; for it will be readily seen that in infants and young children the sum of the orbito-frontal and orbito-nasal angles is much greater than in the adult. After birth the orbito-nasal angle diminishes apparently pari passu with the increase in the orbital length, dependent on the growth of the anterior lobes of the brain; but the orbital length is further increased at puberty by the enlargement of the frontal sinuses; and it is a remarkable and important fact that this is not accompanied with a further diminution of the orbito-nasal angle, but, there being about that time apparently a general growth of the face-bones,

the whole mesial extent of the face is brought forwards, and the nasal spine often even more than the root of the nose.

In the adult the range of variation of this angle is great, but is principally dependent on individual peculiarity, not at all on sex, and only to a limited extent on race. The extremes are 79° in the German skull 33, and 103° in the Hottentot skull 87. In almost all the nationalities of which several specimens have been examined, there is a range of variation of 10° or more, while the difference between the lowest and the highest national average is only 7°. The range of variation appears to be as great in the female as in the male; thus, for example, the largest and the smallest orbito-nasal angles found among the nine Irish skulls are in females. Welcker's* statement that women are more prognathous than men, like his other statement that opisthognathism specially accompanies brachycephalism, and prognathism dolichocephalism, is merely a geometrical result of his unfortunate choice of an upper bounding line for his nasal angle. He states that the female skull has "a greater tendency to prognathism as well as a less strongly bent tribasilar bone than the male;" thus the really valuable part of the statement resolves itself into finding the base more level in the female than in the male. This may be illustrated by reference to the French female skull 25, which in consequence of the levelness of its base would give a high figure for Welcker's nasal angle, and yet has the orbito-nasal angle small, and is altogether in general appearance rather opisthognathous.

Considering the great individual variation and comparatively limited national variation of the orbito-nasal angle, and the exceedingly small number of skulls of any one nation which the writer has been able to measure, the results in the accompanying Table can-

1	Average.	Extremes.	Range.	Average male.	Average female.
5 Greeks	871	80 94	14		
9 Irish	881	82 93	11	88 ₃	8ន <u>ឺរ</u>
2 Esquimaux	881	84 93	9		
8 German	883	79 94	15	893	871
4 Ka6r	863	87 92	5	89	88
8 Scotch	904	84 99	15	905	901
2 Kanaka	91	85 97	12	85	97
9 French	913	86 97	11	913	921
3 Hindeo	931	. 88 98	10		
7 Negro	934	85 102	17	93	95
2 Australian	$94\frac{1}{2}$	94 95	1		
2 Peruvian	94 <u>1</u>	91 98	7		

Op. cit. pp. 51 & 66.

not be considered as a sufficiently trustworthy exposition of the national averages of this angle; still it is curious to note that, such as they are, these results make the angle smallest in the Greek, Irish, and German, decidedly larger in the Scotch, and still larger in the French, which agrees well with the appearance of the features in those nations. Thus it will be generally admitted that prominence of face is a well-marked national peculiarity in the French; and probably no one will deny that the reverse condition is eminently characteristic of the Irish. There is enough in these results to lead to the anticipation that in an extended series of observations the orbito-nasal angle will furnish a marked character of distinction between the different European nations. But enlargement of this angle is certainly not the only source of the concrete phenomenon called prognathism. Any one handling the Kafir skull 68, the Esquimaux 77, or the Carib 88, would probably pronounce them decidedly prognathous; yet their orbito-nasal angles are respectively 88°, 84°, and 85°. Another example is furnished by the diagrams of the Negro skulls 61 and 63, which are as similar as possible in the amount of their prognathism, as well as in many other particulars; and yet the one has an orbito-nasal angle of 102°, and the other an angle of only 89°; but the sum of the orbito-frontal and orbitonasal angles is in the one skull 177°, and in the other 176°, giving a similarity of external appearance notwithstanding great difference of structure.

Length of face from fronto-nasal suture to nasal spine (column 66).—The distance from the fronto-nasal suture to the nasal spine is not subject to much variation, the differences in length of face from the root of the nose to the mouth being chiefly dependent on variations in size of the incisor teeth and the depth of their sockets, while the amount allotted to nose, and the amount to upper lip, depend greatly on the extent to which the alar cartilages descend below the level of the nasal spine. It does not, however, do so altogether; and in the shortness of the distance from fronto-nasal suture to nasal spine (1.75) in the skull of George Bucharan may be seen an indication of the shortness of his nose. This distance does not extend beyond 1.65 in any of the children's skulls examined; it would appear, therefore, that the growth of the upper jaw in length is completed at a later period, which agrees well with the evidence afforded by the orbito-nasal angle that the growth of the jaw forwards is not completed till the full development of the frontal sinus. This distance is shorter in the female than in the male; its shortness in the Australian skull 73 (1.65) is probably an exceptional idiosyncrasy, for in five figures of Australian skulls by Lucae it varies from 1.85 to 2.05.

Naso-basilar angle and naso-basilar line (columns 64 & 65).—It is only necessary under this head to record, for the sake of saving other observers needless trouble, that the distance from the spheno-occipital suture to the nasal spine, and the size of the angle between a line joining these points and the line along the under surface of the basilar process of the occipital bone, have been carefully measured in the series of skulls examined in the hope that they might throw some light on the causes of prognathism. But the size of the angle is dependent in great measure on the steepness or levelness of the base of the skull as well as on the form of the face; and the length of the line is

affected by the size of the whole skull as well as by the proportionate size of the face and its projection forwards; and thus neither measurement yields results of much importance.

Causes of prognathism.—If the reader take into consideration the various points bearing on prognathism which have already been considered, he will easily convince himself, that the causes of that appearance are not, as is usually supposed, confined to the form of The statement of the case may not unfairly be put thus:—that a retreating forehead and projecting face are regarded as characters of a savage or degraded form of the human skull; but it has been shown that the result on the profile produced by that combination is exactly the same as what is produced by the combination of a vertical forehead with a non-prominent face, or, in other words, a large orbito-frontal angle plus a small orbito-nasal angle is equal to a small orbito-frontal plus a large orbito-nasal angle; and by studying the direction of the floor of the anterior cranial fossa which separates those two angles, it has been further seen that it is far from being true that the forehead in the ruder races of men slopes more back on the floor than in cultivated nations, and that it is by no means always the case in admittedly prognathous races that the orbito-nasal angle is larger than in orthognathous races. Therefore, although prognathism sometimes is the accompaniment of a large orbito-nasal angle, it remains to be explained how a skull with a small orbito-nasal angle may yet be prognathous, and why a skull with that angle large is not necessarily so.

The first thing to be noted in explanation is that in prognathous races skulls often are found which are not prognathous except in their dentition. But besides this there is another matter to be taken into account. The division of skulls into orthograthous and prognathous is simply an application of the norma verticalis, and a skull is judged of according to the apparent prominence of the face when it is laid on a flat table. apparent prominence may be made to disappear by placing a support beneath the occipital bone; and thus it is apparent that the form of the back of the head affects prognathism as estimated by the norma verticalis. The principal circumstance which acts in this way is the degree of cranial curvature; for it is evident that if the fore part of the skull be taken as fixed in position, the greater the curvature the lower will the back part of the base be brought. Two other causes, namely, shortness and levelness of the base, conspire when present along with deficient curvature to increase apparent prognathism: they are not necessarily or even usually present in prognathous races; but the flattened American skull 96 affords a good example of the combination alluded to producing great apparent prognathism with a rather small orbito-nasal angle. In the Esquimaux shull 77 an illustration is given of a prognathous appearance dependent on deficient curve, notwithstanding the great length of the foramino-optic line and the smallness of the orbito-nasal angle.

It ought further to be noticed that length of face, including dental sockets, will tilt up the fore part of a cranium laid on a table and produce apparent prognathism similar MDCCCLXX.

to what deficient curvature would; and thus it happens that projection forwards and elongation downwards of the face are liable to be confused together in judging of prognathism. The Kafir skull 68 and the Australian 73 may be taken as illustrations of these two kinds of facial prominence. Not only in judging of dry skulls, but also with respect to skulls clothed with the integuments and during life, the elongation of the face downwards may be mistaken for projection forwards; for this seems to have been done by Viechow in the instance of the adult Cretin head already referred to. So also the appearance simulating prognathism, extremely common in the rustic population of the west of Ireland, is certainly not the result either of prognathous dentition or large orbitonasal angle, but reaches its maximum when there is a heavy dentition in the upper jaw, and the lower jaw is so small that the chin fails to come forward into a straight line below the upper incisors.

In column 67 of the General Table it has been sought to express by a single measurement, termed index-angle of prognathism, the gross amount of prognathism, whether dependent on projection or length of face, or on deficient cranial curvature. It is the angle between two lines, both starting from the alveolar process between the middle incisors, and one of them passing to the fronto-nasal suture, while the other touches the lowest part of the base in the diagram, which in most instances is the back of the foramen magnum, but in some fectuses is the front of that foramen. The angle exhibits a great deal of individual variation in the nations in which several specimens have been examined, the variation in the German skulls amounting to 14°; still the order in which it arranges the nations is worth noting. The most orthognathous skulls are the Greek, and after them come Scotch, French, Irish, German, Kanaka, Hindoo, Esquimaux, Peruvian, Kafir, Australian, Negro, and lastly, most prognathous of all, the compressed and flattened Americans.

A much more precise comparison, however, than can be made either by this indexangle or by division of skulls into prognathous, orthognathous, and opisthognathous, may be made by distinguishing the different points which together combine to constitute prognathism.

First. Prognathous dentition can be easily detected with the unassisted eye.

Secondly. The size of the orbito-nasal angle should be distinguished.

Thirdly. The cranial curvature ought to be considered quite apart from the preceding characters, although the following may be taken in lieu of it.

Fourthly. As the curvature of the cranium is continued in the face, and in most characteristically prognathous skulls the facial part of the curve is unusually slight even when the proper cranial curve appears fully developed, it is well to take account of the whole curve which is expressed by the retreating angle contained between the long diameter of the foramen magnum and a line from the back of the palate to the alveolar process between the middle incisors. This may be termed the foramino-palatal angle.

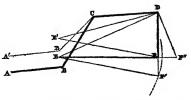
The foramino-palatal angle (column 31) gives results not very dissimilar from those

given by the angle of cranial curve. It differs from that angle, however, in that apparently it is not affected by sex. The cause of this seems to be that while the cranial curve is greatest in the female sex, females have also shorter faces than males, and the one difference counterbalances the other. The arrangement according to the size of the foramino-palatal angle separates the European from other skulls more completely than the cranial curve does.

	Average.	Extremes.	
Esquimaux	198	189 and 207	
Peruvian	1994?	1917 208	
Cafir	2013	193 216	
Negro	202∓	197 212	
anaka	202}	195 210	
ustralian	204	202 206	
lindoo	206	201 212	
Greek	206₹	202 213	
Scotch	208#	198 216	
French	210	202 216	
German	212]	201 219	
rish	2147	210 220	

Relations of the upper jaw to the ear (columns 54, 55, 62, 63, & 68).—The line from the postauricular depression to the nasal spine is in many instances exactly equal to the line from the same point to the fronto-nasal suture; much more frequently it exceeds it, doing so to the greatest extent when the ear is high above the level of the foramen magnum and the elements of prognathism are present; while occasionally in the Irish, German, and Scotch skulls it falls considerably short of it. The worst fault of CAMPER's facial angle is that the anterior line is rested on the glabella instead of the fronto-nasal suture, and thus an element is made to operate on its size which has really nothing to do with the conformation of either face or cranium, but is a mere local accident. If it be modified by drawing one line from the postauricular depression, and the other from the fronto-nasal suture, to meet at the nasal spine, an angle will be obtained which will vary according to the same circumstances as regulate the proportionate length of the lines from the postauricular depression to the fronto-nasal suture and nasal On the whole, the absolute difference between these two lines is the simplest register of the information. Four circumstances influence the comparative length of these lines, as also the size of the facial angle now described; they are:-first, the height of the ear above the level of the foramen magnum; secondly, levelness or steepness of base, and the extent of the foramino-optic line; thirdly, the length of the face from the fronto-nasal suture to the nasal spine; and fourthly, the size of the orbitonasal angle. The accompanying diagram (p. 160) makes these points clear, and also illustrates that a certain amount of projection forwards of the nasal spine has a much greater effect than the same amount of elongation downwards, both in diminishing the facial angle and in increasing the distance from the ear to the nasal spine.

A B C D represents the base, E the postauricular depression, and F the nasal spine; E' represents the position of the postforaminal depression when the ear is more elevated above the foramen magnum A B, or with a more level base A'B'CD. The lines drawn to F' and F' show the effects of removal of the nasal spine



downwards or forwards. The diagram suffices for the geometrical proof of the statements which have been made.

III. POSITION OF THE SKULL ON THE VERTEBRAL COLUMN.

We are now in a better position to consider the way in which the skull is set on the vertebral column than we were at the commencement of the investigation, as various points which have emerged with regard to form bear on the question of position. This question is the more difficult as it cannot be altogether settled by means of precise methods, as the position of the body is continually changing. It may, however, be pretty safely assumed that in the erect posture the head in the human subject is nearly balanced. There can be no doubt, and it is well known, that in the ordinary standing positions the whole body is supported by balance, while muscular action is only required to preserve that balance. This is seen most distinctly with regard to the lower limbs, for the gastrocnemius and soleus are flaccid in standing, as may be easily proved by observing how they become rigid and change their form as soon as an attempt is made to rise on tiptoe; the flaccidity of the quadriceps extensor cruris is proved by the moveability of the patella so long as the knee is straight and the foot on the ground; and that the glutei muscles are entirely relaxed in standing is shown by observing how the gluteus maximus at once becomes rigid on bending the body forwards, and the gluteus medius and minimus when the opposite foot is lifted up. It is not so easy to prove the relaxation of the muscles of the back in standing, although the curves of the vertebral column speak distinctly enough of balance; but if, with the head held erect and loosely, the fingers of both hands be rested on the upper part of the complexus muscles, and flexion be made from the hips, without changing the relative positions of head, neck, and trunk one to another, those muscles will be felt to swell out and harden, again to relax on resumption of the erect posture. It appears to be a general principle of animal statics that the body can be supported without muscular action; and in the human subject the absence of an elastic ligamentum nuchæ shows that it is not by the principle of suspension that the head is preserved erect.

But if the head be balanced on the vertebral column, it must change its position with growth, and be gradually tilted up more and more from childhood to adult life, to throw more weight behind the condyles as the frontal and temporo-sphenoidal lobes of the brain increase in size, and the face-bones become heavier; and the greater the growth of these parts the greater must be the tilting up. This tilting or rotation back-

wards must be accomplished either by movement of the vertebral column so as to make the upper surface of the atlas look more and more backwards, or by gradually increasing prominence of the anterior extremities of the occipital condyles. There seems to be no evidence that the change is in the position of the atlas; on the contrary, the arch of that vertebra appears to preserve a horizontal position throughout life; but the increasing prominence of the anterior extremities of the condyles is sufficiently great to catch the eye, and is what will now be more explicitly proved.

A flat surface laid on the occipital condyles, and on the skull behind the foramen magnum, having been assumed as horizontal, the degree of elevation of the condyles is easily estimated by measuring the angle which the long axis of the foramen magnum forms with that plane. But the tilting up of the skull is complicated by the increase in cranial curvature which proceeds with growth. Were there no alteration of position of the back part of the skull in the progress from infancy to adult life, the increase in cranial curvature would turn the face more and more downwards; it may be necessary therefore to distinguish tilting up which involves only the back part of the skull from such as involves the whole cranium. With a view to this distinction, as fair an index of the position of the face as can be found is the line of orbital length, and therefore not only the angle at which the horizontal line lies to the long axis of the foramen magnum has been measured (column 77), but also the angle at which it lies to the line of orbital length (column 78).

In infants' skulls the foramen magnum forms the smallest angle with the horizontal line, while the cranial curve being as yet imperfect, the line of orbital length forms a larger angle with the horizontal than it does in many adults. But it is to be recollected that in infants there is at first little attempt at balance, the erect posture being not yet assumed. In the children's skulls the average angle of the foramen magnum with the horizontal remains smaller than that of any of the adults except the Hindoos, while the angle of the line of orbital length has sunk lower than the average of adult males in any nation.

Among adults there seems to be least tilting round in the Hindoos, and next to them in the Australians. In the Esquimaux and Kafirs the angle of the foramen magnum with the horizontal line is not very great; but owing to the small cranial curvature, that of the line of orbital depth is greater than in any of the other nations. In the Irish, French, and Scotch, on the other hand, the angle of the foramen magnum with the horizontal is high, the curvature being great. In the Germans, where the curvature is greatest, the tilting up of the foramen magnum is not quite so great; but this may be accounted for by lightness of the face-bones and by the greatness of the parietal breadth as compared with the frontal breadth in some of them, a circumstance which throws more weight behind the condyles.

It appears very distinctly from the accompanying Table that the female skull is much less tilted back on the condyles than the male, being in this, as in various other respects, more child-like than the male skull; and in the two apparent exceptions to this rule, the Kanaka and Kafir, a full explanation is found in the high cranial curvature.

Of the fore	men magnun	a.	Of the line of orbital length.			
4 Infants	. 6∙2 7·8		1 î•5 5·5			
	Males.	Females.		Males.	Females	
Hindoo	7 ∙6		German	.5.8	å	
Esquimaux	8.5		Hindoo	7		
Australian	9		Australian	10	1	
Kafir	10	2ô	Irish	10.8	4.3	
Greek	10.7		Scotch	11.4	8	
German	13	8.6	French	12-8	3-6	
Negro	13.4	8•5	Greek	13.5		
Scotch	13.6	11	Negro	16.4	9.5	
French	14.6	11.3	Esquimaux	17.5		
rish	15.5	11.6	Kanaka	19	8	
Kanaka	16	17	Kafir	20.3	14	

After the greatest adult male rotation backwards of the skull has been accomplished. a reverse change may take place as a feature of old-age degeneration. The condyles in that case become flatter, and the head, in consequence of this, is necessarily rotated forwards; for it may be safely assumed that no elevation of the floor of the facets of the atlas takes place, by which alone such rotation could be prevented. That such an oldage degeneration actually occurs can scarcely be denied, but among the skulls measured there are only three well-marked examples of it, namely, the old Scotch skull 40, the German 28, and the Greek 47; they are, however, really good examples. The first two exhibit in a marked manner all the gravitation changes of form; the third does not exhibit those changes in a typical manner, as it has a nearly vertical forehead which can scarcely be imagined to have fallen much backwards; but probably it has undergone a partial change like the German 29, which appears to have enlarged its foramino-basilar angle by the weighing down of the back part of the cranium and its contents. tendency of the gravitation changes is to throw more of the weight of the brain and skull behind the condyles; and this, together with absorption of the substance of the jaws, and that enlargement of the air-sinuses at the expense of osseous tissue which goes on in old age even after the entrances into the sinuses are blocked up, makes the fore part of the head lighter; and thus the rotation forwards by flattening of the condyles tends to preserve the balance. This flattening of the condyles is in harmony with the general tendency in old age to absorption of osseous matter, especially cancellated tissue—a tendency which is shown in the skull, not only in the extension of the air-sinuses, but in thinning of the bone opposite the inferior occipital fossæ, and in the squamous portions of the temporals. Indeed the much remarked thickening of the skull in old age seems to be confined to those parts which are subjected to increased exposure by baldness.

Applications of the foregoing remarks to artistic anatomy.—The foregoing remarks tend to explain the superficial appearances seen in the form of the head at different ages and in the two sexes, as well as in individuals; but, in applying them, it must be

kept in view that the rotations of the skull on the column at different ages involve change in the relations of the flexible soft parts to the bony framework of the features. Hence, while there is no ambiguity as to what is meant by placing the face of either a living or dead person so as to look directly forwards, the greatest of all difficulties in examining skulls is to know how the features lay to the face-bones.

When a young infant is supported with its face directed straight forwards, the most characteristic point in the appearance of its head is the height of the parietal region, which we now know depends partly on the small proportional development of the frontal region, and partly on the position of the skull on the vertebral column; while the prominence of the face in the region of the nostrils depends on the large orbito-nasal angle and the slope upwards and forwards of the line of orbital length, the result of incomplete cranial curvature.

In childhood the parietal height becomes less marked as the forehead fills up; and there being as yet little rotation on the vertebral column, and the orbits remaining comparatively shallow, while the cranial curvature has increased, the frontal eminences appear more prominent than in either the infant or the adult. Thus the frontal region, although it has by no means gained the proportion to the parietal which it bears in the adult, makes a great show; but its actual smallness is revealed by the low position and closeness one to the other of the frontal eminences. Both in infancy and childhood, the midoccipital point, owing to the head being not yet tilted up, is placed very high, which, with the non-development of the tuberosity and the want of muscularity of the neck, gives a slender appearance to the lower and back part of the head.

In the adult male the rotation backwards on the vertebral column combines with the development of the frontal sinuses and face to give a retreating appearance to the forehead, and, together with the increased prominence of the occipital tuberosity, gives a rounded fulness to the lower back part of the skull. It is a grave mistake to predicate deficient development of the anterior lobes of the brain from a retreating forehead, or great development from a vertical forehead, without reference to the rest of the form of the head. Large anterior cerebral lobes may be the cause of a retreating forehead, by causing rotation backwards, for they will add to the weight of the fore part of the head as much as heavy jaws would: but if the cranial curvature be not deficient, the rotation consequent on the weight in front will give a rounded appearance to the lower back part of the skull, by lowering the position of the occipital tuberosity. The physiognomical effect of this is very important. Much is said of the physiognomic value of a high forehead, and little store is placed on fulness of the lower and back part of the head; but the artistic value of apparent occipital development is easily demonstrated by drawing a profile and varying the limiting line of the lower part of the skull behind. The change of one line at this part may be made to convert an intelligent-looking head into that of a weak-minded person, without alteration of a single feature of the face. The anatomical fact which the change of line indicates is an arrest of development of the whole brain, whether large or small, leaving the cranial curvature incomplete.

The question of the beauty of a high or low forehead in the representation of feminine form receives elucidation from the principles laid down. The question is less one of taste than one of anatomy, for the just proportions of the head in the two sexes are as subject to law as those of the trunk. The child-like position of the feminine skull on the vertebral column, dependent on the lightness of the face, and on that deficient frontal capacity demonstrated by Huschke, combines with smallness of the postforaminal angle to cause the continuance of other peculiarities of the young head, viz. an appearance of slenderness at the lower back part, and a rise of the roof as it passes back from the forehead. The kind of height of head required in the representation of feminine beauty is this rise of the roof, a result not of real height but of the position of the head on the vertebral column; the kind of height which is objectionable is height of the frontal eminences. There is probably no objection to the whole arch of the skull being represented high in the female; but it is inconsistent with the greatest feminine grace to place the frontal eminences as high up and as far asunder as they are in the male, and to make the arch retreat horizontally backwards. It is established by Welcker, Weisbach, and Ecker* that the average height of the female cranium is less than that of the male; and although the present measurements do not prove this statement, it is in all likelihood correct. Among the present measurements are several feminine skulls of markedly depressed form, such as do not occur in the male, and others which are not in the least depressed. Probably it may be correct to say that in consequence of the persistence in the female, as has been pointed out by ECKER, of the flatness of the roof found in childhood, the latest accession of height in the male skull is wanting in the female (p. 148), but that the mould of the female head in childhood may vary like the male.

Further characteristics of a femininely shaped head have their origin in peculiarities pointed out in considering the angles in connexion with the arch, viz. the largeness of the orbito-frontal and fronto-parietal angles and the angle of the tuberosity, and the smallness of the frontal, parietal, and postforaminal angles. Among these characteristics those which affect the forehead and roof have been appreciated by ECKER. The difference in the general contour of the profile in male and female may be expressed by drawing a line to represent the male profile round a line representing the female, and making it touch the female profile at the midfrontal point, and in the region extending from the midparietal to the midoccipital point (see Plate XXI.).

IV. ANOMALOUS FORMS OF SKULL.

Unusual magnitude, Kephalon of Virchow.—The large skull 92, in the possession of Professor Thomson, appears to be a fair specimen of individual enlargement with preservation of shapeliness, and uncomplicated with hydrocephalus or any other pathological condition; and the peculiarities about to be mentioned are probably most of them common to the majority of cases of individual regular enlargement. The base-line has

^{*} Ecker, Anthropological Review, October 1868, p. 350, translated from the Archiv für Anthropologie.

undergone no increase; but the elongation of the inferior part of the skull is due to the length of the occipital bone from the foramen magnum to the tuberosity. Hence the proportion of the arch to the base-line exceeds even what is usually found in infancy or childhood, being 3.3. The orbito-frontal angle is large and the midfrontal small, the postforaminal angle large, and the angle of the tuberosity small, so that the combination is produced, not otherwise occurring, of a vertical forehead with prominent eminences going together with the rounded and full appearance given behind by a low-placed tuberosity.

It may further be observed that the enlargement of the arch has taken place principally in the frontal and occipital regions, the parietal remaining of a normal length. Now in the growth from infancy, the frontal and occipital regions normally increase in length as compared with the parietal. If, then, further researches should show that in unusually large skulls the parietal is generally less enlarged than the frontal and occipital regions, we shall have evidence that the excessive development of the arch takes place by a continuance of the method of growth by which the latest steps of its ordinary growth are effected.

The Greek skull 46, already alluded to as having some peculiarities, appears to be an instance of Kephalon less marked and of a different kind. It is true that this skull is not singular in its size, when compared with all the other skulls in the list; it is, however, the largest of the five Greek skulls, and bears evidence of its shape being altered from the national model by continued enlargement. The profile diagram has a much more dolichocephalous appearance than those of the other Greek skulls, and one might be disposed to doubt the alleged nationality; but such a doubt does not explain the peculiarities, namely, the small cranial curvature, the long base-line, and the large orbitofrontal angle. All the peculiarities, however, are removed and the shape of the cranium assimilated to that of the other Greek skulls if we suppose the frontal portion of the arch to be rotated downwards round the fronto-parietal point, so as to lessen the fronto-parietal angle, shorten the base-line, push back the line of orbital length, and throw the foramino-optic line into a more nearly vertical position. This seems to show that this skull presents an instance of individual enlargement accomplished by flattening out of the fronto-parietal angle, the result of elongation of the base-line in consequence of continued levelness of base, the growing brain having pressed too much downwards to admit of the usual contraction of the orbito-basilar angle in process of growth. The enlargement of the skull in this instance is produced less by any unusual increase of size of the bones than by their being placed at unusual angles one to another.

Hunchback (skull 93).—This skull exhibits arrest of development in various respects, while in others it is fully grown. There is no deficiency in the face nor in the regions of the base; but the frontal part of the arch is short, and, consequent on this, the deep frontal angle is small and the cranial curvature deficient. Also the midparietal angle is more acute than is usual in adults. These peculiarities, so far as one may judge from external appearances, seem to be very usual among rachitic dwarfs, and not the mere idiosyncrasies of this one skull.

Cretins and Idiots.—The Cretin form of skull described by VIECHOW has been already referred to in treating of the relation of the face to the cranium (p. 153). Reverting again to VIRCHOW's figures of the skull of the Cretin aged fifty-three, and of the new-born Cretin's skull, there seems little difficulty, after all that has been said, in determining the nature of the cranial degeneration, and accounting for the appearance of prognathism which led Virchow to expect a projection of the face from underneath the cranium. The line of attachment of the tentorium, instead of beginning at a considerably lower level than the floor of the anterior fossa of the skull, and passing directly backwards, begins on a level with that part, and appears to rise as it passes backwards; so that, instead of there being increased curvature to make up for shortness of base, as VIRCHOW supposed, there seems to be a marked deficiency in cerebral curvature, and, as it were, a thick slice taken off the lower part of the middle and posterior lobes. This deficiency of curvature does not show itself in the skull by decrease of the angle between the plane of the foramen magnum and the floor of the anterior cranial fossa; but although that angle is the index which we have been using as the measure of curvature, it in this instance misleads in consequence of a drawing up of the front of the foramen magnum, which is not the result of curvature, but of the mere shortness of the basilar process from synostosis, and the crushing up of the dorsum sellæ to the level of the anterior cranial fossa. The want of development backwards of the cerebral hemispheres, indicated by the line of attachment of the tentorium in Virchow's drawings, must, according to the principle of balance, have led to a great tilting backwards of the skull during life, and consequent projection of the jaws. The crushing up of the dorsum sellæ, in these Cretins, to the level of the anterior cranial fossa, is a phenomenon not unlike what has occurred in skull 91 (Professor Thomson's "baker's skull"), only that in that instance the basilar process has become more horizontal as it has been pushed up, while in the Cretin skulls it has not been so; but in the Cretins, as well as in the "baker's skull," there is the appearance of deformity by gravitation. Probably, as happens in the bones of rachitic skeletons, they had first yielded too freely, and then ossified too rapidly; nor is the circumstance that one of the skulls is that of a new-born infant adverse to this theory, seeing that in utero the whole body presses down on the head.

In the skull of the Idiot, 94, there is a totally different state of matters, probably a typical idiot form. Evidently the idiot's skull figured by Cares* is of the same description, although still more degenerated. Here there is no defect in the development of the base, no evidence of gravitation changes. The foramino-optic line and orbital length are both long, the base is steep, the cranial curvature great, the face largely developed, and, in connexion with this, there is a frontal sinus projecting far forwards in front of the brain. The base and face have gone through all the stages of a complete and full development; the vault alone is diminished, and that diminution is in height as well as breadth. The deficiency of height is best illustrated by the shortness of the frontal depth; the deficiency of breadth is such that, as already mentioned, the greatest width

^{*} C. G. Carts, Neuer Atlas der Cranioscopie, taf. xix.

is between the mastoid processes. Plainly, in this case, the deficient cerebral development is the cause and not the consequence of the form of the skull.

Artificial deformities.—Among the American skulls examined three have been subjected to considerable artificial pressure. Of these, the Peruvian, 79, is the least deformed, and the writer has deemed it not unfair to use it in drawing up tables of national peculiarities. One of the other two (95) has been tightly compressed with bandages, while the other (96) has been flattened by boards not interfering with supplemental lateral projection. A study of these two skulls shows some important points. In the flattened skull the proportion of the arch to the base is smaller than in any other skull examined, which, taken in conjunction with the circumstance that the base is \dot{a} pretty short one, renders it probable that the growth of the roof-bones has been interfered with; but in the other skull, in which the transverse and longitudinal diameters have been equally compressed, there is no evidence of any obstruction to the growth in length of the roof-bones. It does not appear that any arrest in the growth of the base has taken place in either skull. No doubt the orbits are shallow, but they are not unnaturally so; and if it had happened that the development of the frontal sinuses at the proper period had been prevented by pressure in infancy, a thing in itself unlikely, there would have resulted from this, and indeed from any restraint of the normal growth forwards of the frontal bone, a large orbito-nasal angle consequent on the unrestrained natural growth forwards of the lower part of the jaw; but the orbito-nasal angle does not surpass 90° in either skull. The base in both skulls is very level and deficient in cranial curvature; and both these peculiarities are best marked in the flattened skull, in which also the arch is most deformed. The deformity of the arch longitudinally consists in flattening of the frontal and occipital bones and bending of the parietals, as exhibited by the large midfrontal and midoccipital angles and small midparietal angle. Now this deformity of arch results from the cerebral mass being pressed out from the grasp of the compressing agent, and this grasp presses as much downwards as upwards; and although it meets with more resistance in the downward than the upward direction, the effect of the downward pressure is exhibited in the levelness of the base and the deficient cranial curvature,—the action being, in fact, precisely of the same description as has been already mentioned as occurring in the large Greek skull 46.

It is not, however, to be forgotten that, as has been pointed out by Professor TURNER*, such skulls as these are not subjected to pressure during the whole period of growth, but owe their deformity to pressure in infancy; and the question remains, how it happens that the deformed shape given to the infantile skull is preserved. Professor TURNER suggests arrest of development from premature synostosis as the explanation, and his own observations, together with those of Dr. DANIEL WILSON, show that in such skulls there is great tendency to obliteration of sutures; while the flattened skull 96 gives an instance of arrest of development of the roof-bones. But it is difficult to see how synostosis, although it may occur, accounts for the phenomena sought to be explained. To

the writer the explanation seems rather to be found in the consideration that the process of growth in the frontal and parietal bones and occipital squama consists normally of two parts,—the addition of new bone to the margins, extending the planes in which those margins lie, and the change of shape of each bone, by bending and unbending, from the form of a cone with truncated apex at the centre of ossification to a more uniformly curved but, on the whole, flatter shape. In the artificially compressed skulls the frontal and occipital bones are flattened out, while the parietals are forcibly bent; there is no original tendency of the flattened central parts of the frontal and occipital bones to become elevated, and the natural tendency of the parietals to become flatter is insufficient to undo the enormous bending to which they have been subjected; while, in addition, the directions of the planes of marginal growth are entirely changed.

V. COMPARISON OF THE HUMAN SKULL WITH THE SKULLS OF VARIOUS ANIMALS.

On comparing the human skull with that of the Chimpanzee or Orang, the most interesting points noticeable in the latter, in connexion with the facts brought forward in this paper, are the smallness of the cranial curvature, and the length of the base as compared with that of the arch. There is also a complete absence of balance of the head on the vertebral column, which is in harmony with the fact that no Ape is capable of supporting itself by balance on its hind limbs, but requires persistent muscular action to prevent it from falling.

To compare the human cranium properly with crania of animals, the cranial cavity must be regarded as a dilated and curved continuation of the spinal canal. The advance in the form of the cranial cavity of Man, as compared with that of the Chimpanzee, consists in increased dilatation both in height and breadth and in increased curvature, whereby not only is the vault expanded, but the bones of the base are crowded together, the postsphenoid and presphenoid being fused, the ethmoid depressed, and the vomer pushed back in the way more fully described by the writer on a former occasion. It is curious to note that while the dilatation of the cavity by height is greater in the Orang than in the Chimpanzee, the curvature is much greatest in the Chimpanzee (Plate XXI.).

It is impossible, however, in examining the curvature in the lower animals, to use any longer the means of estimating it which have served us hitherto; for as we pass to lower forms we find the frontal bone coming further down on the face and the optic foramen varying in direction, so that the line joining the optic foramen and fronto-nasal suture no longer indicates any thing with regard to the cranial cavity. Another difficulty, when it is sought to compare the forms of brains, is that the roofs of the orbits, which form the floor of the anterior lobes of the brain, project to a variable and often considerable extent above the level of the cribriform plate. The writer has therefore, with the view of comparing the curvature of the brain in Man and Animals, availed himself of casts of the interiors of the crania of Dean Swift, an Australian, and a Gorilla, prepared under the direction of Professor Wright of Dublin, together with the casts of the interiors of

Philosophical Transactions, 1862, p. 296.

the Tartar and Negritic skulls described by Professor HUXLEY; and has taken as an expression of the cerebral curvature the angle between a line laid along the anterior lobe of the brain in the groove formed by the roof of the orbit, and another extending from the torcular Herophili to the most depending part of the middle lobe. The results are:—

Dean Swift .		$16\overset{\circ}{4}$
Australian .		164
Tartar		155
Negritic skull		156
Gorilla		

In the lower Mammalia the direction of the orbit is so variable that it was found necessary to try still another method of comparison. The following results are obtained from vertical sections by measuring the angle between the middle line of the upper surface of the presphenoid in front of the optic commissure, and a line drawn so as to express as nearly as possible the direction of the tentorium.

German, No. 29 184	Negro, 63 175	Cat 133
Scotch Female, 43 182	Kafir, 70 191	Dog 150
Greek, 44 186	Australian, 73 . 193	Pig 150
Irish Male, 53 196	Synostotic, 89 175	Deer 131
,, ,, 54 182	Chimpanzee 172	Rabbit 116
" Female, 55 177	Orang 168	Squirrel 99
,, ,, 56 182		Turkey 103

It is noticeable that this angle varies much in different human skulls, and not according to the variation of the angle of cranial curvature made use of in the former part of this paper. This is probably due partly to the impossibility of estimating the angle with perfect precision, partly to different arrangement of the cerebellum in different skulls, and partly to a circumstance seen best in the Australian, Kafir, and Negro. those skulls, while the upper surface of the presphenoid is directed to a marked degree downwards as well as forwards, the cribriform plate of the ethmoid is directed again upwards and forwards, so that a mean between the directions of the two parts would most justly express the direction of the floor of the anterior cranial fossa in the middle line. The angle under consideration scarcely exceeds in some human brains the size found in the Chimpanzee and Orang, but in these animals the ethmoid is considerably turned up. Taking this into consideration, together with the comparison of the casts of the interior of the cranium in the human subject and the Gorilla, it may be held that the advance in form of the human brain as compared with the brains of the higher Apes consists partly in an increase of cerebral curvature, dependent on depression of the sphenoid and ethmoid, and on descent of the orbital roofs towards the level of the ethmoid, but to a greater degree consists in increased expansion both in height and breadth of the cranial dilatation of the cerebro-spinal canal.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SKULLS MENTIONED IN THE GENERAL TABLE.

1 to 6, Feetal skulls.—1 & 3 are specimens preserved in spirit, the others are dried. The first five were bisected and the section traced with ink on oiled paper; the sixth was measured with the craniometer.

7 to 11, Skulls of new-born infants.—7 was a recent specimen, which was bisected and the section traced. The others are specimens in the Anatomical Museum of the University of Edinburgh.

12 to 18, Children of various ages mentioned in the Table.—The ages of the Edinburgh specimens were taken from the Catalogue and from the dentition of the skulls. 13 is a specimen prepared under the writer's observation.

19 to 27, French.—19 to 24, male; 25 to 27, female. 24 bears the inscription "Soldier of Napoleon and Knight of the Legion of Honour." It is a large and heavy skull, with the face large as well as the cranium, and with the base-line singularly long for a European; probably it belonged to a tall man. 20 has a clino-cephalic depression at the top of the coronal suture, which may have been the result of spheno-parietal synostosis; the spheno-parietal and spheno-frontal sutures are obliterated, and the sagittal begun to disappear. The arch is much thrown backwards. 25 is a marked instance of retention in the adult female of certain infantile characters-levelness of base, unelevated condyles leaving the skull unrotated on the vertebral column, and, in harmony with this, smallness of face and anterior lobes of the brain; the malar and frontal breadth both being very small as compared with the greatest breadth. 26 contrasts with 25 in being high in the arch and steep in the base; both skulls may have exhibited, during life, prominence of forehead, 25 from non-rotation on the column, 26 from shortness of orbital length. 27, the skull apparently of a female about thirty, has undergone a certain amount of deformation in the upper and back part from accidental pressure. The occipital squama is flat, the parietals are curved, and a hollow is formed at the top of the coronal suture, not by restriction of growth from synostosis, but by the rise of the parietals.

28 to 35, German.—Unfortunately there is no information from what part of Germany any of these skulls were obtained. 28 to 32 are male, 33 to 35 female. 28 & 29 are skulls of aged persons. 28 is toothless, very unsymmetrical, with the foramen magnum much sunk between the mastoid processes, and the base fractured, apparently post-humously; the skull is anomalously broad behind. 33 is remarkable for the smallness of the fronto-nasal angle. 34 has the frontal suture open, the base level, the orbit shallow, the face short, and the condyles non-elevated.

36 to 43, Scotch.—36, the skull of the historian George Buchanan. The base is injured, a portion of the occipital bone in front and behind the foramen magnum being destroyed. The injured portion is restored in the diagram in dotted lines, and the possibility of error is extremely slight. This skull was obtained when some alterations were being made in the Grey Friars Church, Edinburgh, and was deposited in the Natural-History Museum of the University. 37, a small skull with a large orbito-nasal

angle, is thus described in Sir Grorge Ballingall's Catalogue:- "Skull found on the field of Kilsyth, blackened by lying in a moss, and showing several extensive wounds. Supposed to be the head of a Covenanter." 38, skull of a Fife man named EDMUNDS, executed for the murder of his wife, under circumstances, however, of provocation. 39, skull of HAGGART, a noted thief, who was executed. 40 is described in Sir George Ballingall's Catalogue: -- "Skull showing extensive ulceration of the frontal bone, from a gunshot wound received at Waterloo, which the patient survived for many years. Some parts both of the frontal and the parietal bones are thickened to more than half an inch. Both tables of the skull had been involved in the ulcerative process, and an irregular opening is left of nearly 6 inches in circumference, the margins of which have been rounded off. The nasal portions of the frontal bone, as well as the nasal bones and nasal processes of the superior maxillary bones, present a curious appearance. The ethmoid, lachrymal, and other small bones are quite destroyed. As most of the teeth of the upper and the whole of those of the lower jaw are wanting, and the alveolar processes absorbed, it is seen that the subject of this extensive injury, a field-officer in the army, must have lived to an advanced age." 41 is a skull of a young man aged twenty. 42 was not a Museum specimen, and may not have been preserved; it appeared to be the skull of a middle-aged female, and was remarkable in this, that the sphenoidal wings did not reach up to the parietal bones. 43 is the skull of a female aged eighteen. Both 41 and 43 were prepared under the writer's observation.

44 to 48, Modern Greek.—44 and 45 are both marked "from Corfu." 45 is injured at the back of the foramen magnum; it is very unsymmetrical, and remarkable for the length of the foramino-optic line. The slope of the forehead may be fairly attributed to gravitation change. 46, 47, & 48 were preserved to show varieties of sabre cuts, and are described in Sir George Ballingall's Catalogue as "the skulls of patriot Greeks who fell in the actions between the Turkish and Greek forces, under General Church, in 1827. They were brought from the plain between the Piræus and city of Athens, and presented by Dr. McWilliam, R.N." 46 is referred to in the text as an instance in which enlargement of the brain probably prevented the base from increasing in steepness, and thus elongated the base-line, throwing forwards the frontal bone. The position of parts which might have existed if this supposed action had not taken place is illustrated on the diagram by means of dotted lines; it is the skull of a young man. 47 appears to be the skull of an old person, and has a considerable articular surface at the back of the foramen magnum for the arch of the atlas.

49 to 57, Irish.—49 is the skull of a man named Hubley, from the neighbourhood of Galway, executed for a brutal murder. 50 is the skull of a young man named Lydon, from the neighbourhood of Galway, executed for the murder of his wife who had been unfaithful. 51 is the skull of a tall old man from Ballinasloe. The remaining six Irish skulls are all from the Abbey of Claregalway, where, as in some other neighbouring places, a peculiar custom with respect to burials prevails. There is no sexton; but when a peasant dies, the friends dig a grave within or around the old ruins, displacing the

bones met with, which they think have been long enough in possession of the soil. The exhumed bones are collected in great heaps, some consisting entirely of skulls, others of limb-bones. There is no reason to believe that any of these skulls have much antiquity. Though 52 has been selected as exhibiting most distinctly some of the signs of gravitation, 54 is also apparently the skull of an old person; it is toothless, the sutures begun to be obliterated, and the condyloid surfaces small and flat. 53 has markedly prognathous incisor sockets. 55, 56, & 57 are obviously female skulls. 55 is toothless, and has the condyloid surfaces small and flat. It has no contact of the sphenoid with the parietal on the left side. 57, in the possession of Dr. Brereton, of Oughterard, has no spheno-parietal suture on either side, but on each side a temporo-frontal suture about $\frac{3}{4}$ inch long.

58, 59, 60, Hindoo.—60, much more massive than the other two, is marked "Brought from the banks of the Hoogley by the Marquis of Hastings." All three skulls, together with others in the Anatomical Museum of the Edinburgh University, present unsymmetrical flattening of the occipital region, such as is described by Dr. Barnard Davis as occurring in Siamese skulls*. Seeking an explanation of the same sort as Dr. Davis sought, the writer once asked the wife of an Indian officer if the natives had any peculiar way of cradling their children, and got for answer that they had not, but that they were very fond of laying them on their backs, and that when the Indian nurses placed the English children in that position their mothers turned them on the side, as they fancied lying on the back would make their heads the same round shape as those of the natives. Possibly when the occipital arch is flat, and therefore of a weak form, it more readily yields to accidental pressure than in other cases.

61 to 67, Negro.—61 is the skull of a Negro drummer of a French regiment; the whole skeleton is preserved. 62, the skull of an old person, has a superficial resemblance to an Australian skull, but the arch lacks the characteristic curve of the roof, and the supraorbital ridge is owing to enormous frontal sinuses. 63 has the dorsum sellæ reaching above the level of the floor of the anterior cranial fossa, a sign of a badly developed skull. 64 has the upper part of the occipital bone replaced by a large Wormian bone: this skull and 65 are well developed. 66 is catalogued as a Negress, and has some feminine characters. 67 is marked "Negress, aged fifteen, from West Africa."

68 to 71, Kafir.—68 has the cranial curvature remarkably deficient, and the posterior nares remarkably low. 71 is female, and, as compared with the males, has a level base and high cranial curvature.

72 & 73, Australian.—73 has the dorsum sellæ on a level with the floor of the anterior cranial fossa.

74 & 75, Kanaka.—74, male; 75, female.

76 & 77, Esquimaux.—76 is of unascertained sex; it presents various feminine characters. 77 is remarkable for its great length of base-line and deficient cranial curvature.

^{*} Thesaurus Craniorum, p. 176.

- 78 & 79, Peruvian.—78, skull of supposed Inca, from Temple of the Sun. The roof is partially covered with fine brown hair, 3 or 4 inches long. The only evidences of compression are a slight depression and want of symmetry above the occipital tuberosity and a slight flatness in the midfrontal region, which might be the accidental result of wearing some kind of head-dress. 79, also a supposed Inca, "dug up near Arica, in a burial-ground which had been disused since the conquest by Pizarro in 1532, by R. T. C. Scott, Surgeon, H.M.S. Talbot." The results of compression by bandages are very obvious.
- 80, skull of BURKE the murderer.—The peculiarities of this singular skull are probably chiefly referable to gravitation changes prematurely setting in, either from softness of the bones or carrying weights on the head.
- 81, "skull of Pepe, a Spaniard, captain of a piratical crew, who was captured at the Isle of Pines, by Captain Graham, R.N."—From accounts of this man, which do not seem to have passed through many hands, he appears to have been a monster of brutality. The skull is also a singular one. The foramino-optic line is extremely long, and the cranial curvature deficient, while the posterior half of the skull appears to be too slender from above downwards for the fore part. The condyles are unusually prominent; and by this circumstance, together with the deficient cranial curvature, the head is thrown in the diagram into a position which it could scarcely have occupied in life.
 - 82, Swiss.—This is probably a female skull.
 - 83, Turk.
 - 84, Tartar.
 - 85, Chinese.—The skull of a young man.
- 86, Maori.—For the opportunity of examining this skull, in the possession of Dr. Murray, who brought it from New Zealand, I am indebted to the kindness of Dr. Henry S. Wilson.
- 87, Hottentot Chief.—This is an uncommonly large skull with a very large orbitonasal angle.
- 88, Carib.—This skull is remarkable for its flat retreating forehead, great orbital length, and long base-line. The orbito-nasal angle is rather small.
- 89, French acrocephalus.—The deformity is the result apparently of synostosis of the lower parts of the coronal suture, whereby the growth of the orbital length has been checked, while the loss of growth forwards has been supplemented by exaggerated height at the vertex. The dorsum sellæ reaches above the level of the anterior cranial fossa; and the levelness of base indicates that the brain has exercised pressure downwards as well as upwards.
- 90, a low and elongated skull illustrating aberrant form not caused by synostosis.—
 It is toothless, the frontal suture open, as also the others, save that the lower parts of the coronal and the fronto-sphenoidal sutures are beginning to fade.
- 91, skull with the base curiously driven in, as if by carrying great weights, such as a baker's tray.

. 92, anomalously large skull

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93, skall of a hunchback; disserting room specimen.

94, skull of an idiet, who died in Morningside Asylum.

95, compressed Chingois skall from Columbia River.

96, flattened Carib or other skull, allowed to grow unlimitedly in breadth.

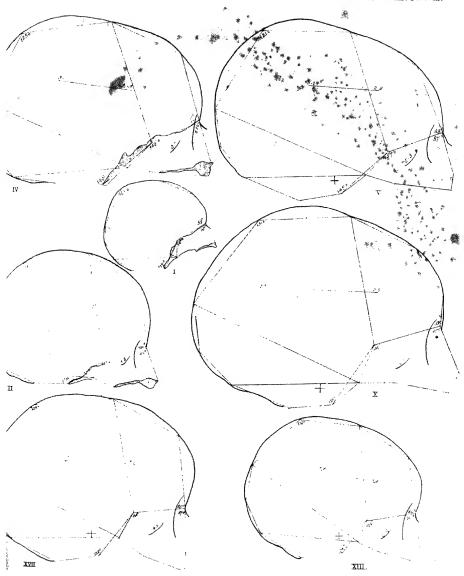
EXPLANATION OF PLATES XIL-XXI.

Table are represented in the Plates, and are there distinguished by the same numbers as in the Table; the letter f being added in the case of female skulls. The first five, namely, four fætal skulls and the skull of an infant at birth, are represented full size; all the rest are reduced to half-size. The cranial area in each case is divided by lines into frontal, parietal, upper occipital, and lower occipital parts; and the number of degrees in a few of the more important angles is expressed in figures to assist the eye in comparing different forms. Also the positions of the upper and lower borders of the upper extremity of the temporo-malar suture is indicated by the lower end of a short curved line, above which the maximum breadth between the zygomatic arches is stated; and a straight line is drawn from the point where the greatest depth of the cranium occurs to the position of the greatest breadth in the course of the coronal suture, termed the frontal breadth, the amount of breadth at these two points being indicated at the extremities of the line.

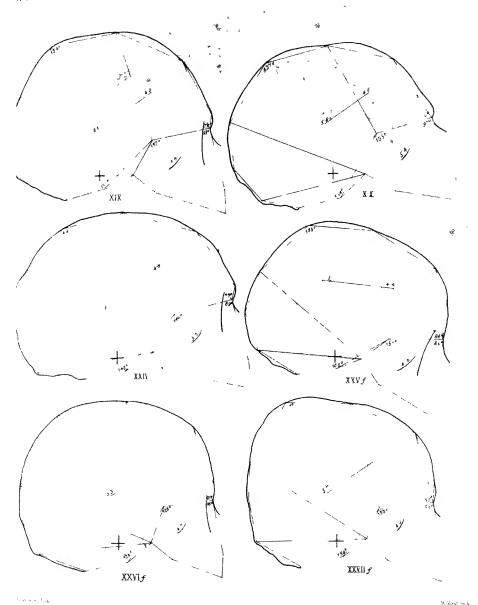
To give the diagrams framed from measurements greater completeness, the curve of the arch was obtained by means of a lead wire pressed against the skull, and then carefully laid on the diagram; and the curves so obtained are reproduced in the Plates. This method, together with other useful hints, was recommended to the writer by Dr. Hecror, now of New Zealand, and it is right to state that the recommendation was given previous to the appearance of Huschee's work, in which the same method is described. Used with care the lead wire gives details of the arch curves not easily otherwise obtained. Those instances, however, in which tracings of vertical sections have been secured show that the points settled by measurement are more accurate than the indications of the lead wire.

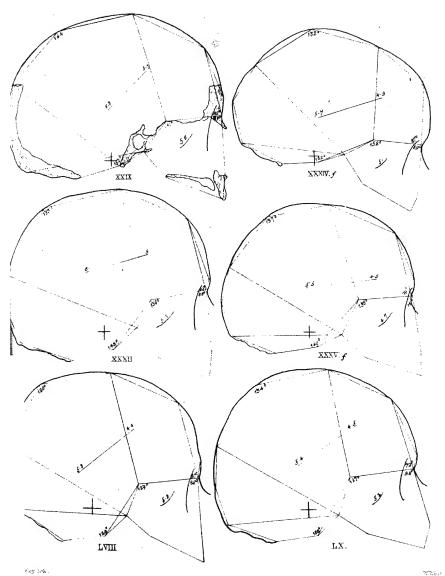
In Plate XXI. the figure of skull 91 has been obtained entirely by means of measured points and the lead wire, without the assistance of a vertical section. The views of the skulls of animals in this Plate are taken from tracings of vertical sections, and the names of the animals are mentioned in the Plate.

W View har



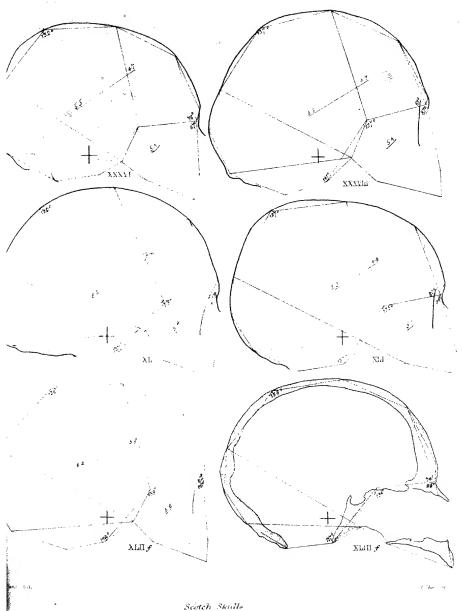
Skulls of Children before & after birth (The first five are field size)

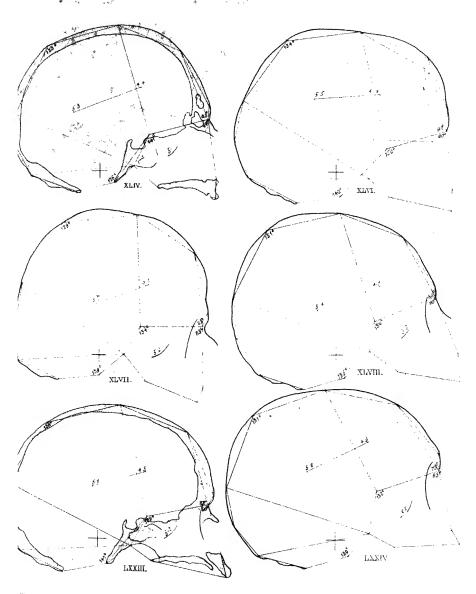




XXIX, XXXII, XXXIV, XXXV, German LVIII LX Hindoo

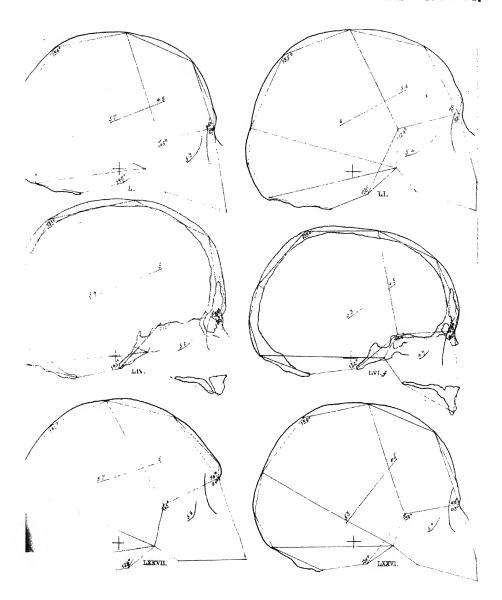
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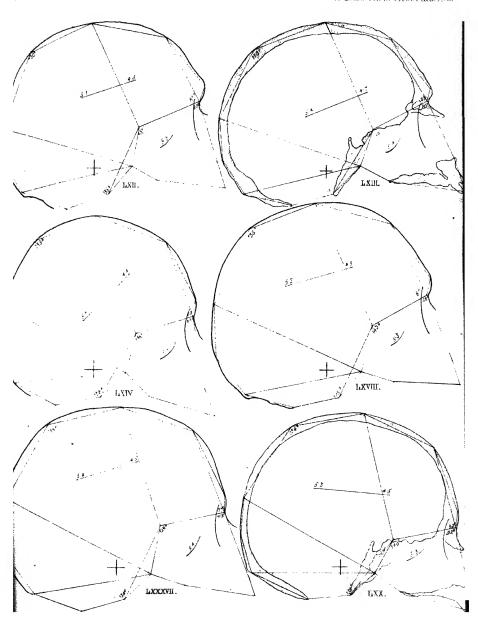


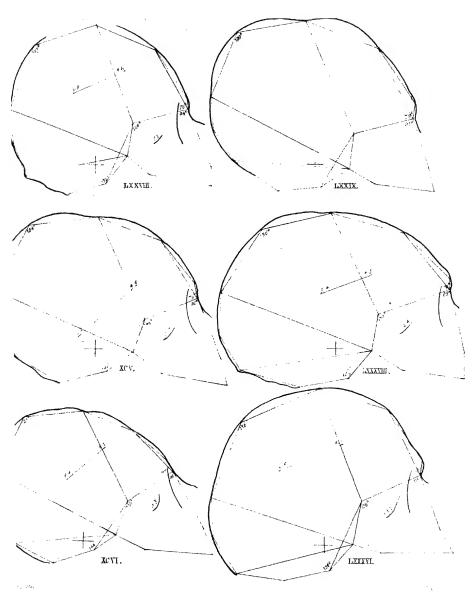
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VLIV, XLVI XLVII XLVIII Creek LXXIII Australian , LXXIV Kanaka



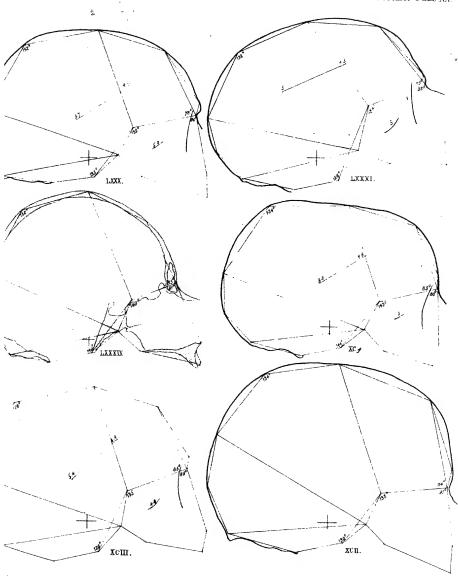
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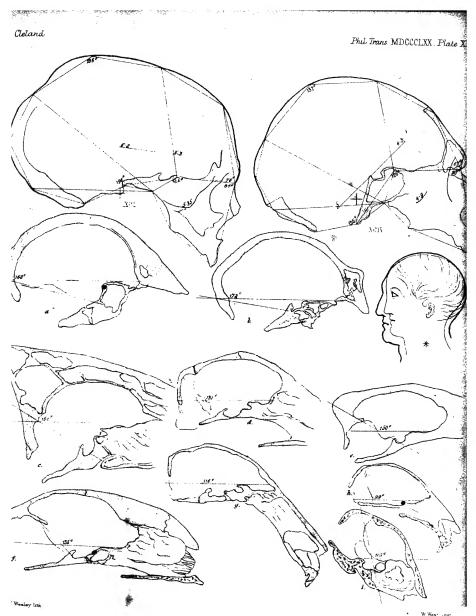


LAXVII, LEXIX, Pomeran (base), 122, Avi Moore (EXXVIII) durib XCV Compressed Chinook - XCVI Flattesed American

W. West 200



LXXX.Burke. LXXXI Spanish pirate LXXXIX Synostotic French XUII Elongated form XCIII. Hunchback XCII Anomalously large



XCI. Base driven XCIV Idiot _ a Orang. b. Chimpanzee c. Fig. d Deer. e Dog f Cat. g. Rabbit. h. Squirrel v. Turkey. * Male & Female profiles. ___

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IX. On the Proof of the Law of Errors of Observations. By Morgan W. Crofton, F.R.S.

Received March 24,-Read April 22, 1869.

1. So much has been published upon the Theory of Errors, that some apology seems to be required from a new writer who does not profess to have arrived at any results which were unknown to his predecessors. Nevertheless, so great, as is well known, are the difficulties of the theory, whether we seek to form a correct estimate of the principles on which it rests, or to follow the subtle mathematical analysis which has been found indispensable in reasoning upon them, that any contribution which tends to simplify the processes, without weakening their logical exactness, will probably be considered of some value. My object in this paper is to give the mathematical proof, in its most general form, of the law of single errors of observations, on the hypothesis that an error in practice arises from the joint operation of a large number of independent sources of error, each of which, did it exist alone, would produce errors of extremely small amount as compared generally with those arising from all the other sources combined. Now this proof is contained in a process given for a different object, namely, Poisson's generalization of LAPLACE's investigation of the law of the mean results of a large number of observations, to be found in his 'Recherches sur la Probabilité des jugements,' and which is reproduced in Mr. Todhunter's valuable 'History of the Theory of Probability."

It is obvious that we should altogether restrict the generality of the proof, confining it merely to a few artificial and conventional cases, if we were to suppose each source of error to give positive and negative errors with equal facility, or to assume the law of error (even supposing it unknown) to be the same for all the sources. None of the processes, therefore, contained in the 4th chapter of the 'Théorie Analytique des Probabilités' are of sufficient generality for our purpose, though some writers have so employed them; nor will the method apply here which Leslie Ellis has given in his memoir "On the Method of Least Squares" (Camb. Phil. Trans. 1844), based upon Fourier's theorem, on account of the assumption of equal facility for positive and negative errors. The proof which follows will be found, I think, of full generality,—the only cases excluded being incompatible with the existence of the exponential law (see art. 7), and at the same time greatly simpler than Poisson's, dispensing with his refined and difficult analysis.

2. It is remarkable that the well-known exponential function which is now pretty

[•] The length of this communication may seem at variance with the statement that the proof here given is a simpler one than those of former writers. Still I think it will be found to be so on examination; the length of the paper arises from fuller explanations being given than is usually the case. I am persuaded that the doubts and misconceptions which have prevailed so extensively with relation to this subject have been in great part occasioned by the extreme brevity and scanty explanation of the great writers who have treated it.

generally received among mathematicians as expressing the law of frequency of single-errors of observation, does not seem to have been distinctly given by any one of the three-great philosophers Laplace, Gauss, and Poisson (who may be called the founders of the Theory of Errors) as being, in their opinion, the expression of that law. It has been erroneously supposed, as Leslie Ellis points out, that Gauss's and Laplace's proofs of the method of Least Squares depend upon that assumption. It is true that Gauss's first method, in the 'Theoria Motûs,' does require it; but he does not present that method as other than tentative and hypothetical: and later, in the 'Theoria Combinationis Observationum,' he says, speaking of the law of single errors, "plerumque incognita est."

As, however, this law of error seems in our day to have been adopted by general consent, some inquiry into the grounds on which its validity rests will be appropriate here. And first I would remark that it can scarcely be maintained that any attempt hitherto made to establish this law independently of the hypothesis I have named in art. I has been successful. We may pass by Gauss's proof in the 'Theoria Motûs,' which shows that the law must hold if we take as an axiom that the arithmetical mean of several observations is the most probable result. Now this really is not an axiom, but only a convenient rule which is generally near the truth: this we see by considering any case in which we are certain that the errors do not follow the exponential law; does the mind see here à priori that the rule does not give the most probable result? It seems certain that we should have just the same confidence in it here as in any case; yet GAUSS'S proof shows that it does not give the most probable result*. It should indeed be stated that GAUSS himself (as might have been expected from that acute and accurate mind) is very far from asserting the above assumption to be an axiom; consequently he does not give his proof as more than hypothetical. He only states that the rule is generally accepted-"axiomatis loco haberi solet hypothesis." A method of remarkable simplicity was given by Sir J. HERSCHEL in a very interesting review of QUETELET'S 'Letters on Probability', which conducts to the same law of error by means of one or two bold assumptions; but striking as the coincidence is, it can hardly be seriously viewed as a demonstration; nor is it formally so presented by its distinguished author. However, the methods both of GAUSS and Sir J. HERSCHEL are of great interest to the natural philosopher, as showing that certain à priori mathematical assumptions of a very simple kind lead to the same law of error which reasoning based on a study of the facts which surround us also points out as expressing, at least approximately, what generally does occur in rerum natura: though we can see no necessity that the facts

^{*} See Ellis, loc. cit. p. 207.

[†] Edinburgh Review, July 1850. See a criticism by Leslie Ellis in the Philosophical Magazine, vol. xxxvii. Also Boole (Edinb. Trans. vol. xxi.) and Thomson and Tarr (Natural Philosophy), who speak more favourably. M. Quetelet's 'Lettres' will amply repay a perusal; in connexion with our present inquiry, he points out that not only errors of observations, but the variations of many other fluctuating magnitudes, such as the stature of men, the temperature of the weather, &c. from their mean values, seem to follow the same law. If this be so, the inference seems legitimate that these divergences from the mean types, or errors of Nature herself, as they may be called, are produced in each case, not by one or two, but by a vast number of hidden coexisting causes.

should be so, it being quite easy to conceive a different economy of nature in which no such accordance would subsist.

It is possible à priori to conceive that the law of single errors of observation might be of any form whatever, varying with each kind of observation: how far it is true that in practice one general law will be found to prevail, is essentially a question of facts—an inquiry, not into what might be, but what is. Now the hypothesis above mentioned,namely, that errors in rerum natura result from the superposition of a large number of minuter errors arising from a number of independent sources,-when submitted to mathematical analysis, leads to the law which is generally received; as far therefore as this hypothesis is in accordance with fact, so far is the law practically true. Fully to decide how far this hypothesis does agree with facts is an extremely subtle question in philosophy, which would embrace not only an extended inquiry into the laws of the material universe, but an examination of the senses and faculties of man, which form an important element in the generation of error. Still, without pretending to enter on a demonstration of the truth of this hypothesis, a few reflections upon the facts, especially in the case of Astronomy (which is par excellence the science of observation, and where accordingly the lessons of experience are the clearest and most complete), will, I think, at least convince us of its reasonableness in certain large classes of errors of observations. Now if we attend to what has taken place in the history of astronomical observation, we find that the gross errors of the earlier observers proceeded mainly from three or four principal causes-for instance, refraction, imperfect measurement of time, and the use of the naked eye in pointing to objects. When these few capital occasions of error were removed (at least approximately), refraction being discovered and allowed for, and the pendulum and telescopic sights introduced, it was found that observations at once attained a high order of accuracy, showing that the principal sources of error had been eliminated. It would seem, in fact, that in coarse and rude observations the errors proceed from a very few principal causes; and in this case, consequently, our hypothesis will probably represent the facts only imperfectly, and the frequency of the errors will only approximate roughly and vaguely to the law which follows from it †. But when

The extreme simplicity of the exponential relation itself, whether considered as expressing the law of single errors, or that of the mean results of a large number of observations, as contrasted with the long and difficult methods by which it was established, has naturally led to several attempts to dispense with or simplify the latter; in some the hypothesis we here adopt is taken as a basis; but, so far as the present writer is aware, every process given, except Poissor's, fails in generality. In a recent Memoir on the Law of Frequency of Error by Professor Tair (Edin. Trans. vol. xxiv.) (where, it should be stated, the learned author speaks with some hesitation, and only gives his method as an attempt), it is assumed that each of the elementary errors which are combined can be assimilated to the deviation from its most probable value of the number of white balls among a given large number of balls drawn from an urn, which contains white and black in a given proportion. It is then shown (as indeed is done in Laplace's 3rd chapter) that this error follows the exponential law. Thus the proof only applies to the combination of a number of elementary errors, each of which follows that law. But it is quite certain that many simple errors do not follow that law; hence the method is altogether deficient in generality.

[†] We cannot, however, assert this positively, if there is reason to believe that the error which arises from each principal cause is itself a composite error, which certainly is often the case. The "error in time," for

nstronomers, not content with the degree of accuracy they had mached, prosecuted their researches into the remaining sources of error, they found that, not three or four, but a great number of minor sources of error, of nearly coordinate importance, began to reveal themselves, having been till then masked and overshadowed by the graver errors which had been now approximately removed. It was as if a small number of forest trees had been cut down, leaving an innumerable growth of shrubs and brushwood at their feet, remaining to be cleared. There were errors of graduation, and many others, in the construction of instruments; other errors of their adjustments; errors (technically so called) of observation; errors from changes of temperature, of weather, from slight irregular motions and vibrations; in short, the thousand minute disturbing influences with which modern astronomers are familiar, and which it is superfluous to recapitulate here. Many of these are known and allowed for, or eliminated, at least approximately, in practical astronomy; still we seem to be justified in considering the error which remains as the result of a great number of yet minuter errors, each inconsiderable in itself. Thus a cursory view of the nature of astronomical errors, and the light which this throws on various cognate classes of observations, seem to lead to the conclusion that the above hypothesis will be found to hold, generally, in the case of refined and delicate observations. No doubt much more would be necessary to justify us in asserting

instance, is certainly not a simple error, but one resulting from the joint action of several causes, one or more of which we can conceive detected and allowed for, leaving the others in operation. An error may thus arise from the superposition of only three or four component errors, which at first sight are of simple origin, but in reality represent each a group of minor errors; and the hypothesis would then hold. It is questionable whether, among the causes which in practice vitiate any observation, any simple error ever does enter, of considerable magnitude and importance as compared with the others combined; such, for instance, as would be the error produced in the time (or through the time on some astronomical magnitude) by the pendulum being $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch too long or too short, every thing else being pretty accurate. If it be said that ignorance or negligence might produce such a result, we may answer that such negligence or ignorance would make itself felt in other ways also: one such error would not stand alone. Isolated acts of neglect by a careful observer would come under the head of occasional errors, as explained further on.

It seems very difficult to discern, à priori, the nature of the errors incurred in estimating magnitudes by the eye, or of errors arising from the imperfection of our senses, such as those incurred in pointing to a star with the naked eye. It is quite possible that such errors may arise each from several sources, though their nature is hidden from our view.

* A similar law to that mentioned above seems to prevail in many kindred cases. Thus in the successive improvements in artillery, machinery, &c., in proportion as the greater sources of imperfection and inaccuracy are understood and remedied, the number of minor disturbing influences which are thus rendered perceptible, and still vitiate the results, though to a less extent, increases rapidly. We may even trace a sort of analogy here in various phenomena both of the moral and material universe, which apparently have no bearing on the point we are considering. Thus the principal wants of human nature, the necessaries of life in fact, are very few; and so long as these are supplied with difficulty, minor wants are scarcely felt, as we see in unciviliated communities: but when the greater wants are satisfied, the number and variety of the secondary requirements of our nature are visible in the multitudinous productions of civilized life. The diseases which mainly operate in shortening human existence are very few in number; but could they be extirpated, the number of minor causes, of nearly coordinate importance, which still would influence the rate of marketity would be very large. The statisties of crime, and many other phenomena, would give rise to remerks of assimilar nature.

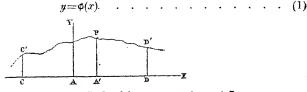
this absolutely; thus it is not enough for our purpose to show, could we do so conclusively; that each error in practice is compounded of a large number of smaller errors; we must also show that they are independent, at least for the most part. Thus we may conceive one of the minute errors affecting an astronomical magnitude to be an error in the refraction proceeding from a rise in the general temperature, and another affecting the same observation to be an error of time arising from the expansion of the pendulum through the same cause; now these two minute errors are not independent, and would have to be mathematically combined in quite a different way from two that were independent; and, indeed, such a change of temperature would influence the actual error of the observation in other ways also. However, we may at least safely conclude that the hypothesis in question is not a mere arbitrary assumption, but a reasonable and probable account of what does in fact take place in the case of careful and refined observations.

3. In proceeding to submit this hypothesis to mathematical analysis, the minute simple errors which go to form the observed compound error will be assumed to follow each its own unknown law, expressed by different unknown functions of the utmost generality*: positive and negative values of each error will not be assumed equally possible; on the contrary, the cases will be included, as obviously ought to be done, of minute disturbing influences which always cause the observed magnitude to err in excess, and of others which cause it to err only in defect. I will exclude all mention of the term probability, and will consider solely the frequency or density of the error, viewed as a function of its magnitude.

Let any magnitude which has to be determined by observations affected with some one cause of error (simple or compound) be represented by the line BA;

let a large number of such observations be made, and let the observed values be represented by a number of lengths BA', measured from B: it will be found in general that in the neighbourhood of A the line will be dotted over with a multitude of points A', the distance AA' being the error in each case. These dots will begin at some point C, and end at some point D, which generally are on opposite sides of A, but may both be at the same side. Between C and D the dots will be distributed over CD with a variable density: this density, at any point A', will represent the frequency or density of errors of magnitude AA'.

If at every point A' we erect an ordinate A'P representing the density at A', we shall thus trace out a locus or curve C'D', whose equation we may call, taking A as origin,



• With regard to the limits or amplitudes of the errors, see note on art. 7.

This we may call the curve or function of Error. It is of course generally discontinuous, as it is only to include values of x between the points C, D. The function $\varphi(x)$ strictly speaking should vanish for all values of x beyond C and D; however, we shall not require any consideration of the analytical methods of expressing such functions. If N be the number of observations taken, and if we put AD = a, AC = b, then as ydx denotes the number of errors lying between x and x+dx,

$$\mathbf{N} = \int_{-b}^{a} \varphi(x) dx. \qquad (2)$$

It is well to notice that, if C be any constant, the equation

$$y = C\varphi(x)$$

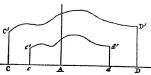
really is the same function of Error as (1), the number of observations only being altered.

4. In order not unduly to limit the generality of the investigation, it is necessary further to study the nature of the possible ways in which the dots we have spoken of as representing the observations may be scattered along the line CD, in the case of various unknown simple causes of error; noting also what becomes of the function $\phi(x)$ and the curve C'D' in each case. And first, in many cases the dots will be distributed continuously along CD, thus giving a curve without gaps or intervals. It is by no means necessary that this curve should descend towards CD at its two extremities more than in the middle; in other words, the extreme values of a simple Error are not always less probable than the intermediate ones. There may be cases where the extreme values are the most probable; for instance, the Error occasioned by supposing a point fixed, which is in reality performing extremely minute and slow oscillations about its mean position. But besides the cases of continuous distribution, there are others, not only conceivable, but which we may be sure do actually occur, in which a function or curve does not assist our conceptions, and we shall do better merely to consider the points or dots themselves. There may be what is called a constant Error; that is, some cause which gives the observation always too great (or too small) by the same fixed minute amount: the distribution here is simply a group of N coincident points somewhere on CD. Or a certain cause may only admit of two or more definite values for the error; the distribution will be two or more groups of coincident points, the numbers in each group being equal or unequal. Again, an important class of Errors are those which may be called occasional Errors, that is, produced by intermittent causes not always in operation. In such a case, if N observations be made, a certain number of them (say n) are unaffected by the Error; the remaining N-n, made when the cause is in operation, we may suppose represented by dots continuously or discontinuously distributed; we have then a group of n coincident points at A, besides a number N-n distributed in some way over CD. Errors of mistake or forgetfulness, and many others also, are of this description.

* The word "error" is sometimes used for shortness to express a source of error. To avoid confusion we may write it with a capital E, when used in this sense. Thus "an Error" will mean a source of error, or the assemblage of actual errors (or the curve or function symbolizing them) which that source produces in a large number of trials, and which form a visible manifestation or representation of it: "an error" will mean a particular magnitude.

5. If we alter the ordinate and abscissa of every point in the curve CD' in a given ratio, changing the limits a, -b of the Error in the same ratio, we find the curve c'd' represented by

$$\frac{y}{i} = \phi\left(\frac{x}{i}\right), \ldots (3)$$



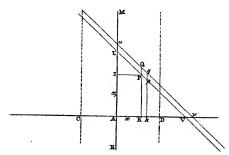
which may be called a *similar Error* to (1) or C'D'. The number of observations will be different in the two cases, being represented by the areas of the two figures. We may find it convenient to suppose the number of observations the same; if so

will be a similar function of Error to $y=\phi(x)$, the number of observations being the same for both, the limits of the error in (3) and (4) being ia, -ib.

6. To find the function of Error resulting from the combination of a given Error whose equation is

(the limits being $\pm \infty$) with another independent Error

whose limits are a, -b.



We shall do this most clearly by help of a geometrical construction. Let the (N) values of the first Error be measured from A according to their signs along the indefinite line MR; likewise measure the (n) values of the second Error along CD, where AD=a, AC=b. Take any two values, $AI=x_1$ of the first, and AK=x of the second; they give a value $x+x_1$ of the compound Error, to which will correspond a point P of the plane, whose coordinates are x, x_1 . The number of such points contained within the element ABC=CLXX.

 $dx dx_i$, each point corresponding to a compound error, will be

$$yy_1 dx dx_1$$
 or $f(x_1)\phi(x)dS$,

dS being the element of the area. Draw through P a line UV equally inclined to the axes, then $x+x_1$ is constant along this line; put $\xi=x+x_1=AV$, take $Vv=d\xi$, and draw uv parallel to UV; take Kk=dx, then the number of points within the elementary parallelogram PQpq will be

$$f(\xi-x)\phi(x)d\xi dx$$
.

Hence the whole number of points between the parallels UV and uv (that is, the number of compound errors whose magnitudes lie between ξ and $\xi+d\xi$) will be

$$d\xi \int_{-b}^{a} f(\xi - x) \varphi(x) dx.$$

The total number of compound errors thus obtained will be Nn; however, for uniformity, we will suppose the number of observations taken, affected with the compound Error, to be N, the same as for (5). This will oblige us to divide by

$$n = \int_{-b}^{a} \varphi(x) dx.$$

Thus if we represent the compound Error by a curve whose coordinates are (ξ, η) , it will be

$$\eta = \frac{\int_{-b}^{a} f(\xi - x) \varphi(x) dx}{\int_{-b}^{a} \varphi(x) dx} . \qquad (7)$$

Thus if we wish to find the Error resulting from the combination of the two Errors whose equations are

$$y = \frac{N}{6\sqrt{\pi}}e^{-\frac{(x-\alpha)^2}{\theta^2}}, \ y = \frac{N'}{2\sqrt{\pi}}e^{-\frac{(x-\beta)^2}{2^2}},$$

we have from formula (7) (N, N' denoting the numbers of observations),

$$\eta = \frac{N}{\pi \theta \phi} \int_{-\pi}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(\xi - x - a)^2}{\theta^2}} e^{-\frac{(x - \beta)^2}{\phi^2}} dx,$$

whence

$$\eta = \frac{N}{\sqrt{(\theta^2 + \Phi^2)\pi}} e^{-\frac{(\xi - \alpha - \beta)^2}{\theta^2 + \Phi^2}}.$$

Hence it is easy to see that if any number of Errors of the forms

$$y = \frac{N}{\theta \sqrt{\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{\theta^2}}, \ y = \frac{N'}{\phi \sqrt{\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{\phi^2}}, \ y = \frac{N''}{\psi \sqrt{\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\gamma)^2}{\psi^2}}, &c.$$

be combined, the resultant Error will be

$$y = \frac{N}{\sqrt{\pi(\theta^2 + \phi^2 + \psi^2 + \dots)}} e^{-\frac{(x - \alpha - \beta - y - \dots)^2}{\theta^2 + \phi^2 + \psi^2 + \dots}} \dots (8)$$

Expanding $f(\xi - x)$ in formula (7), it becomes

$$\eta = f(\xi) - \alpha f'(\xi) + \frac{\lambda}{2} f''(\xi) - \frac{\sigma}{2.3} f'''(\xi) + \&c.,$$

where

$$\alpha = \frac{\int_{-b}^{a} x \phi(x) dx}{\int_{-b}^{a} \phi(x) dx}, \quad \lambda = \frac{\int_{-b}^{a} x^{s} \phi(x) dx}{\int_{-b}^{a} \phi(x) dx}, \quad \sigma = \frac{\int_{-b}^{a} x^{s} \phi(x) dx}{\int_{-a}^{a} \phi(x) dx}, \quad \&c.,$$

 ω being the mean value of the Error $y=\varphi(x)$, λ its mean square, σ its mean cube, &c.

7. In the problem of finding the law of error resulting from the superposition of a great number of Errors, each of very small importance by itself, we will consider each component Error as the *diminutive* of some Error of finite importance (see art. 5). Thus if y=F(x) be some possible finite Error, and we reduce its dimensions in the ratio *i*, where *i* is infinitesimal, the diminished Error will be $\frac{y}{i}=F\left(\frac{x}{i}\right)$; and if the mean value, mean square, mean cube, &c. of the former be called

$$E_1, E_2, E_3, \ldots,$$

it is easy to see that the same means, for the reduced Error, will be

$$i\mathbf{E}_1, i^2\mathbf{E}_2, i^3\mathbf{E}_3, \ldots$$

Now adopting the usual axiom that no function can represent a finite Error unless E_1, E_2, E_3, \ldots are finite, it follows that the mean cube, mean 4th power, &c. of the

. Thus all conceivable cases of Errors whose extreme limits, or amplitude, are very small, are contained in the above method of proof; also those small Errors which, though their extreme amplitude be not very small, are merely possible finite Errors (of great or infinite amplitude) on a reduced scale. It is necessary, however, to observe, in examining the nature of all the minute simple Errors which our hypothesis in its generality comprises, that there are cases quite conceivable, and involving no absurdity, of simple Errors of trivial or infinitesimal importance which come under neither of these categories, and to which the method in the text will not apply. To give a simple instance, imagine an occasional source of Error, which rarely operates, but which, when it does, gives a fixed finite error k (thus we may conceive an observer to mistake, once in a thousand times, the succeeding division of his instrument for the true one). Let this happen on an average once for n times that the cause is not in operation (a being supposed very great); then the mean value of the Error is $\frac{k}{n+1}$, its mean square is $\frac{k^2}{n+1}$, &c. It is therefore of infinitesimal importance whether, with Laplace, we estimate the importance of an Error by its mean value (irrespective of sign), or, with Garss, by its mean square; but as its mean cube &c. cannot be rejected in comparison with the mean square, the above analysis cannot be applied to it. Minute simple Errors of such a description must then be excepted from those which are supposed to enter into the composition of the actual errors of observations. If an appreciable number of them did enter, the received exponential law could not hold for the compound Error. Thus were we to combine a large number of small Errors of the nature of the simple instance just cited, the resultant Error would be of a discontinuous nature, represented by groups of coincident points, with finite intervals between them.

Though it is necessary clearly to understand that the full generality of the hypothesis is restricted by the exceptions explained in this note, yet there seems every reason to suppose that such cases are too rare in practice to cause any sensible deviation from the exponential law of error, the great majority of the minute component Errors which jointly affect any observation in rerum naturá having each, it is natural to suppose, a very minute range or amplitude.

diminutive Error may be rejected in comparison with its mean square*. We infer, therefore,

If y=f(x) represent any Error of indefinite amplitude, and if a new Error, $y=\varphi(x)$, of indefinitely small importance as compared with it, be superposed, the resulting compound Error will be represented by the equation

$$y=f(x)-\alpha \frac{d}{dx}f(x)+\frac{\lambda}{2}\frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x), \qquad (9)$$

where α , λ are infinitesimal constants, viz. the mean value of the new Error and the mean value of its square \dagger , the number of observations being supposed the same for the Error (9) as for the former, y=f(x).

If we now conceive $y=\varphi(x)$ in the above to be one of a large number of independent infinitesimal Errors, and y=f(x) to be the compound finite Error resulting from the combination of all the others, we infer from (9) that each elementary Error $y=\varphi(x)$ affects the law of the combined Errors in a manner which only involves (α) the mean value of the elementary Error, and (λ) its mean square. But if this be so, we may, for our present purpose, substitute for $y=\varphi(x)$ any other Error whatever which has the same mean value and mean square (provided of course its mean cube &c. may be neglected in comparison with its mean square). We may therefore for our purpose replace $y=\varphi(x)$ by \updownarrow

$$y = \frac{n}{\sqrt{2\pi(\lambda - \alpha^2)}} e^{-\frac{(x-\alpha)^2}{2(\lambda - \alpha^2)}}, \quad \dots \qquad (10)$$

which fulfils these conditions.

Likewise, if there be another elementary Error whose mean value is β and mean square μ , we may replace it by

$$y = \frac{n!}{\sqrt{2\pi(\mu - \beta^2)}} e^{-\frac{(x-\beta)^2}{2(\mu - \beta^2)}},$$

and so on, for all the elementary Errors. Hence (see equation 8) the Error compounded of any number of them will be

$$y = \frac{N}{\sqrt{2\pi(\lambda + \mu + \nu + \dots - \alpha^2 - \beta^2 - \gamma^2 - \dots)}} e^{\frac{(\sigma - \alpha - \beta - \gamma - \dots)^2}{2(\lambda + \mu + \dots - \alpha^2 - \beta^2 - \dots)}}.$$

- We cannot neglect the mean square as compared with the mean 1st power, as the latter is the algebraical sum of a number of positive and negative elements, which sum may be of any amount, however small, and may sometimes vanish altogether; whereas the former is the sum of a number of positive elements, and therefore cannot vanish.
- + If the new Error be such as to give any discontinuous distribution of points (see art. 4), it is easy to satisfy ourselves, by the method of art. 6, that the above proposition still holds good. In fact, if the n values of the new Error be x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots , we shall have, instead of the formula (7),

$$\eta = \frac{1}{m} \{ f(\xi - x_1) + f(\xi - x_2) + f(\xi - x_3) + dc. \},$$

which is true in all cases, whether the distribution be continuous or discontinuous, or a mixture of both; and hence the formula (9) will follow.

‡ This suggestion is due to Professor J. C. Adams, one of the Referees charged by the Royal Society with the duty of reporting upon the present Paper. The remainder of the proof, which was of a different nature in the Paper as originally presented, is much simplified thereby.

We conclude therefore that if a great number of minute independent Errors be combined, and if we write

$$m = \alpha + \beta + \gamma + \dots = \text{sum of mean Errors},$$
 $h = \lambda + \mu + \nu + \dots = \text{sum of mean squares of Errors},$
 $i = \alpha^2 + \beta^2 + \gamma^2 + \dots = \text{sum of squares of mean Errors},$
(11)

the resulting function of Error will be

$$y = \frac{N}{\sqrt{2\pi(h-i)}}e^{\frac{-(x-m)^2}{2(h-i)}}. \qquad (12)$$

The Probability of an error being found to lie between x and x+dx is of course

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(h-i)}}e^{-\frac{(x-m)^2}{2(h-i)}}\,dx\,\dagger.$$

If positive and negative errors in the observation are equally probable, as generally can be secured in practice, at least approximately, then m=0; that is, the sum of the mean values of the elementary component Errors vanishes, and the Probability is expressed by the usual value

$$\frac{1}{c\sqrt{\pi}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{c^3}}dx.$$

If we calculate by integration from equation (12) the mean value of the composite Error (or, as Gauss calls it, the constant part of the Error) and the mean value of its square, we shall find

Mean Error=m=sum of mean values of component Errors, Mean Square of Error= $h+m^2-i$.

We have thus a verification of the correctness of our analysis, as the same results may be found from independent algebraical computation.

- 8. Considering the celebrity of the question, it may not be superfluous to show how the result might have been obtained without any antecedent knowledge of the peculiar property of combination of the Errors in equation (8).
- We may observe that h-i is always positive; for if we take any set of numbers, positive or negative, the mean of their squares is always greater than the square of the mean (see Todhunter's 'Algebra,' p. 407). Therefore

$$\lambda > \alpha^2$$
, also $\mu > \beta^2$, $\nu > \gamma^2$, &c.

Consequently h > i.

† This expression will be found to agree with Poisson's final result in the memoir already cited.

where each of the quantities a, b, c, d, &c. may take any number (different for each quantity) of different independent values, adopting for shortness the symbol M(K) for "the mean value of K," it is not difficult to prove, by elementary algebra, that

$$M(U) = M(a) + M(b) + M(c) + &c. = 2M(a),$$

$$M(U^{a}) = M(a^{a}) + M(b^{a}) + M(c^{a}) + \dots + 2\Sigma\{M(a)M(b)\},$$

$$M(U^{a}) = 2M(a^{a}) + \{2M(a)\}^{a} - \Sigma\{M(a)\}^{a}.$$

Let us suppose all the infinitesimal simple Errors which it is proposed to combine to be successively superposed upon some assumed function of Error y=f(x); then by equation (9) the new function arising from the first of them will be, putting $D=\frac{d}{dx}$,

$$y = \left(1 - \alpha D + \frac{\lambda}{2} D^2\right) f(x).$$

If another be now superposed upon this, we shall have

$$y = \left(1 - \beta D + \frac{\mu}{2} D^2\right) \left(1 - \alpha D + \frac{\lambda}{2} D^3\right) f(x),$$

and finally the function arising from the superposition of all the given Errors upon the assumed Error y=f(x) will be

$$y = \left(1 - \alpha D + \frac{\lambda}{2} D^2\right) \left(1 - \beta D + \frac{\mu}{2} D^2\right) \left(1 - \gamma D + \frac{\gamma}{2} D^2\right) \dots f(x). \quad (13)$$

But as α , λ are infinitesimals, we have, retaining the square of α ,

$$1-\alpha D+\frac{\lambda}{2}D^2=e^{-\alpha D+\frac{1}{2}(\lambda-\alpha^2)D^2}.$$

Thus (13) will become

$$y = e^{-(\alpha+\beta+\gamma+\dots)D+\frac{1}{2}(\lambda-\alpha^2+\mu-\beta^2+\dots)D^2}f(x).$$

or, adopting the notation (11),

$$y = e^{\frac{1}{2}(h-i)D^2}e^{-mD}f(x) = e^{\frac{1}{2}(h-i)D^2}f(x-m).$$
 (14)

9. Let us now take as the assumed function of Error

(where N is the number of observations), and imagine the whole given system of small Errors superposed upon it; the resulting function is

$$y = \frac{N}{\theta \sqrt{\pi}} e^{\frac{1}{2}(h-i,D^2)} e^{-\frac{(x-m)^2}{\theta^2}}$$
.

Now by a theorem in the Differential Calculus*,

$$e^{aD^2}e^{-kx^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+4ak}}e^{-\frac{kx^2}{1+4ak}};$$

* This theorem, which is new to the present writer, may be proved in various ways. Thus if we put

$$u = e^{aD^2}e^{-ks^2}.$$

and differentiate with regard to a, we have

$$\frac{du}{da} = e^{aD^2}D^2e^{-kx^2} = e^{aD^2}(4k^2x^2 - 2k)e^{-kx^2}$$

again,

$$\frac{du}{dk} = e^{aD^2}(-x^2e^{-kx^2});$$

we thus obtain the partial differential equation

$$\frac{du}{da} + 4k^2 \frac{du}{dk} + 2ku = 0,$$

hence

$$y = \frac{N}{\sqrt{\pi \sqrt{2(h-i)+\theta^2}}} e^{-\frac{(\sigma-m)^2}{2(h-i)+\theta^2}}.$$

Now we may here assume θ as small as we please*,—that is, we may assume the Error (15) upon which the given system was superposed, to be of as small importance as we please. We conclude, then, rejecting this Error altogether, that a system of very small Errors, when combined, give for the resulting function of Error.

$$y = \frac{N}{\sqrt{2\pi(h-i)}} e^{-\frac{(x-m)^2}{2(h-i)}}$$

as before.

the integral of which is

$$u = k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \phi \left(4a + \frac{1}{k}\right).$$

To determine the arbitrary function ϕ , we remark that if a=0, $u=e^{-kx^2}$,

$$\therefore \varphi\left(\frac{1}{k}\right) = k^{\frac{1}{2}}e^{-kx^2},$$

hence

$$u = k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left(4a + \frac{1}{k} \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x^2 \left(4a + \frac{1}{k} \right)^{-1}} = (1 + 4ak)^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{kx^2}{1 + 4ak}}.$$

Another proof may be obtained by employing Poisson's ingenious transformation (Traité de Mécanique, tom. ii. p. 356), which gives

$$e^{nD^2}\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\omega^2}\phi(x+2\omega\sqrt{\alpha})d\omega.$$

* In order that we may retain the three first terms only in the expansion

$$y=f(x)-\alpha f'(x)+\frac{\lambda}{5}f''x-4c.$$

it is necessary to show that $f^{\cdots}(x)$ and the succeeding differential coefficients are not infinite. Now they generally will be infinite in the case where g=f(x) is an infinitesimal Error, as f(x) will be of the form $K\phi(\frac{x^{\epsilon}}{x})$, where ϵ is infinitesimal; but in the case where

$$y=f(x)=\frac{N}{\theta \sqrt{\pi}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{\theta^2}}$$

we may take θ as small as we please, and yet retain only the three first terms above, because the differential coefficients of y do not here become infinite; in fact it is easy to see that any differential coefficient $\frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$ will consist of a series of terms of the form

$$C \frac{\partial^{\rho}}{\partial r} e^{-\frac{r^2}{\theta^2}}$$
:

now by the rules in the Differential Calculus for evaluating indeterminate forms, this quantity tends to zero as θ diminishes.

X. On the Mineral Constituents of Meteorites. By Nevil Story-Maskelyne, M.A.,
Professor of Mineralogy, Oxford, and Keeper of the Mineral Department, British
Museum. Communicated by Professor H. J. Stephen Smith, F.R.S.

Received October 9, 1869,-Read January 13, 1870.

I. The applications of the Microscope in the investigation of Meteorites.

The mineralogical investigation of a meteoric stone presents difficulties very similar to those which have hitherto rendered the analyses and descriptions of many of the finer-grained terrestrial rocks unsatisfactory; for a meteoric stone is in fact a fragment of a rock, though formed under conditions in some respects widely differing from those which have produced the rocks of our globe.

The difficulties alluded to arise from the minute size and imperfectly developed crystallisation of the mineral constituents alike of the rock and the aërolite; and they have in general baffled the efforts of the chemist on the one hand to effect their separate analyses, and of the crystallographer on the other hand to determine the forms of these constituents. The chemist indeed has endeavoured to overcome the difficulty by attempting a chemical separation of the constituent minerals of these fine-grained mixtures into one group of such as are soluble and another group of those which are insoluble in acids, and then treating the numbers obtained from the analyses of these groups by the light of theoretical considerations founded on the formulæ and properties of known minerals. This method is necessarily only an approximative one. Even granting that by its means we could divide a rock into two classes of ingredients, which we cannot in fact accurately do, there remains the question of how to separate from each other the mingled minerals in, for instance, its insoluble portion.

But the great interest that attaches to whatever may throw light on the history of aërolitic rocks seemed to render it very desirable that some more reliable method should be sought for their investigation. With this end in view, and also with the purpose of basing on such an investigation a scientific classification of the now very extensive collection of aërolites in the British Museum, I some six years ago commenced a systematic examination of these bodies by the microscope. While the meteorites were being cut in order to show their polished surfaces, a small fragment of the portion detached was fastened by its flat side to a strip of glass and carefully worked down to the utmost tenuity. The transparent section thus formed was then examined in the microscope. The results to be obtained by the study of such sections may be divided into such as are structural, throwing light on the physical conditions under which the meteorite was formed, and such as are mineralogical and concern purely the particular minerals that

2 c

MDCCCLXX.

are the ingredients of the stone. From the former class, we learn that a meteorite has had a history; that it has undergone change subsequently to its first consolidation in its present form. The crystalline character of all the constituent minerals; the fissures at one time formed, then filled and then, in many cases, broken across and 'heaved' and filled again, like some mineral lode; the 'chondritic' structure that G. Rose has illustrated*; the fracture, in at least one meteorite, of the spherular 'chondra,' which have been split and severed and recemented into a compact mass,—these are among the many facts imprinted on a meteorite which are so many records belonging to its history, and which by the aid of the microscope we may read and interpret. But to found a classification on the structural characters of meteorites is not the same thing as to arrange them according to their mineralogical composition. The two must be combined for a philosophical arrangement.

I propose dealing with the mineralogical side of the problem in the present memoir, and to recur hereafter to the structural composition of meteorites, when the nature of their ingredient minerals shall have been rendered clear.

The general features of the microscopic sections of certain meteorites were described by me in the years 1863-64; and the examination in this way has been extended to above 140 distinct aërolites. The crystallography, however, of the numerous crystals seen in such a microscopic section is almost hopelessly difficult. In cases where crystallographic directions are indicated by cleavage-planes or by the 'traces' on the section of determinable crystal faces, some conclusion as to the symmetry and system of the crystal can be drawn from the directions of its optical principal sections as indicated by light polarised in a known plane. And occasionally a section is met with so nearly parallel to one of the important faces of the crystal as to allow some reliance to be placed on the angles of its bounding planes as measured by a delicate eyepiece goniometer. A long series of measurements and determinations of the directions parallel to the principal sections in the crystals met with in these microscopic slides has convinced me that, however useful the microscope may be in revealing the structure of a meteorite and helping to determine its place in a collection of such bodies classified according to their physical constitution, it is only partially of use in determining the mineralogical character of the constituents. But if the applications of polarised light and the eyepiece goniometer are thus limited, the microscope has another function to perform in such an investigation; for, from the carefully bruised débris of particular meteorites selected for the frequent recurrence in them of recognisable minerals, and for the magnitude of the grains of these, one is able to pick out under the microscope the distinct particles of each such mineral.

Such particles occasionally offer cleavage-planes, or even a crystal face or two, to the goniometer. In a very few cases crystals have been found sufficiently complete to lead to a reliable crystallographic result. The chief advantage of this method is, however,

^{*} Abhandl. der Königl. Akademie der Wissensch. Berlin, 1864, p. 84.

[†] The crystals of Anorthite in the Juvinas Meteorite were thus measured in the British Museum by my late colleague, Professor V. von Lang, Sitzungsber, Akad. der Wissensch. Wien, 1867.

that it affords the means of analysing the separate minerals selected by it; but even thus the difficulties are considerable. The quantity of material at one's disposal amounts generally to a very few grains, and of these but a small proportion consists of the desired mineral; in fact half a gramme is as much as one is generally able to obtain in a state of purity.

The analysis of so small an amount of a silicate is a difficult problem. To break up the silicate by fusion with alkalies implies the introduction of foreign and non-volatile ingredients; to estimate the silica by its loss on treating the mineral by ammonium or hydrogen fluoride were to lose what, in the analysis of such small quantities, is the necessary check afforded by the summing of the percentages of its constituents.

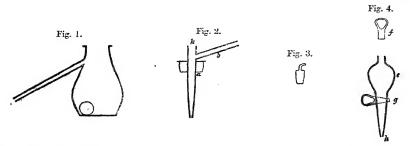
To distil the silica in the form of silicium fluoride, and then to determine it either as silica or as potassium fluosilicate, suggested itself as a means by which this check might be secured. A long series of experiments, undertaken in order to ascertain the best process for thus determining the silica, has resulted in a completely successful application of the method; and by it so small an amount as two-tenths of a gramme of enstatite or of augite has been analysed with a satisfactory result in the Laboratory at the British Museum.

II. On a new Method of analysing Silicates that do not gelatinise with Acids.

The method adopted for the analysis of silicates in small quantity, to which reference has already been made, was the following.

Hydrogen fluoride formed from picked fluor-spar was conducted into water. When the saturation had reached the point at which the liquid gave off fumes, the acid solution was treated in a platinum dish with potassium fluoride so long as any precipitate was formed. After decantation the acid was distilled, the first and last portions being omitted, and the distilled acid preserved in a platinum bottle. A leaden bottle, even when lined with pure gutta percha deposited from its solution in benzole, appears to be attacked by the acid.

A small platinum retort of a capacity of 30 cub. centims. (fig. 1) has fitted into it a tubulated stopper (fig. 2) reaching nearly to the bottom of the retort; a small tube (b)

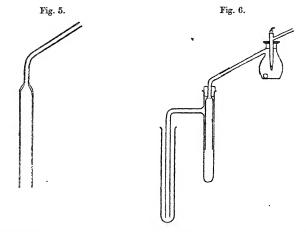


enters the straight tube (k) of the stopper (a) at an angle above the neck of the retort, for the delivery of hydrogen. The straight tube can be stopped either by a small platinum

stopper (fig. 3), or by a funnel of that metal (fig. 4) with a stopper (f) at the top and a fine orifice at its lower extremity (h).

In the side of the retort just below the neck a straight delivery-tube is fixed, which again fits into another platinum tube (fig. 5) that, after taking a curve into a vertical position, is enlarged into a long cylinder capable of passing nearly to the bottom of a test-tube. The test-tube, into which it is fitted by a cork, holds when properly charged 7.5 cub. centims. =6.6 grammes of a strong solution of ammonia (of specific gravity =0.88), corresponding to 2.03 of H₃ N, and a glass delivery-tube passes to the bottom of another test-tube, also containing a little of that alkali.

The mineral to be analysed is first powdered extremely carefully in an agate mortar; of this a quantity, that may be from 0.2 to 0.5 gramme, is introduced into the retort together with a small platinum ball. The tubulated stopper (fig. 2) is now introduced into its place and cemented by the aid of a little gutta-percha varnish, and by winding



over its edge and that of the retort a strip of thin sheet india-rubber. The funnel, with its top closed, is now put into the tubulure of the stopper and filled with the hydrogen fluoride, which has a strength of about 32 per cent. of acid: it contains $1\cdot12$ grm. of pure hydrogen fluoride, capable of rendering gaseous $0\cdot84$ grm. of silicic acid (Si O_2), and of neutralising $0\cdot95$ of ammonia (H_3 N). The acid is next admitted to the silicate, and the funnel removed to give place to the small stopper, which, and the joint of the platinum delivery-tubes, are now sealed with gutta-percha varnish. The apparatus, as prepared for use, is represented in fig. 6*. Pure dry hydrogen is next allowed slowly to traverse the whole apparatus, and the retort is placed in a water-bath at 100° C. for two hours, and occasionally shaken to set the ball in motion. During this operation only a minute trace of silicium difluoride comes over.

^{*} The scale of figs. 1 to 5 is one-half the actual size of the apparatus; that of fig. 6 is one-third the actual

The retort is next transferred to a bath of paraffin and carefully heated in it. At first hydrogen fluoride comes over; and at this point of the process the flow of the hydrogen requires a little attention. At about 132°C., with the silicates described in this memoir, the silica first becomes visible in fine flocks in the ammonia solution, and in another minute the whole is cloudy. In from five to ten minutes the temperature has risen to 142°-145°, and so much of the fluoride has come over that the contents of the tube are of a semisolid consistency, and nearly the whole of it has in fact passed over. The temperature is allowed to increase to 150°, and the retort then permitted to cool. The process is repeated by introducing a fresh charge of hydrogen fluoride into the retort and of ammonia into the test-tube, and again heating in the paraffin bath. If the quantity of the silicate taken be not more than 0.2 grm., twice charging the retort is sufficient; if it amount to 0.5, three or four repetitions of the process are required. The process must in fact be repeated so long as any fresh flocks of silica can be seen to form in the ammonia tube. Finally, 0.75 cub. centim. of sulphuric acid are introduced into the retort, and the temperature raised to 160°, the stream of hydrogen being continued as before*.

The several ammoniacal charges of the ammonia tube are now brought together into a platinum dish with all the washings from the test-tubes and the connecting tubes; and these are now slowly evaporated in a water-bath with continual stirring.

At a certain point of the evaporation, just before the solution becomes neutral, and the ammonium fluoride begins to become acid, all the silica in the dish is dissolved by the fluoride. The process is gradual, but the moment is easily determined when it is complete. Then the dish being removed from the water-bath, potassium chloride is added in slight excess; and absolute alcohol equal in bulk to the liquid in the platinum vessel is poured on it. Potassium fluosilicate precipitates, and after standing twenty-four hours it is filtered and washed with a mixture of equal volumes of absolute alcohol and water, and then dried and weighed. The results are accurate.

In the platinum retort are the bases, in the form of sulphates, the treatment of which calls for no further remark.

A specimen of diopside, pulverised and analysed by the method here described, yielded 53.46 per cent.; on treatment by fusion with potassium and sodium carbonate, it gave in two analyses 53.51 and 53.54 per cent. of silicic acid.

III. The Busti Aërolite of 1852.

Among the meteorites with ingredients sufficiently large in the grain to offer an opportunity for isolating and determining their constituent minerals, is a stone that fell

* In a series of analyses made with a view to determine the degree of energy with which the acid attacks various silicates and the forms of silica itself, it was found that the first turbidity of the ammonia will, if sufficient time be allowed, commence at 120° C. At this temperature to 121° C. twenty-three minutes were requisite for the bulk of the silicium compound to come over from the retort. It was not found, however, that the action of the acid was more energetic on one silicate than on any other, or on quartz.

in India on the 2nd of December, 1852, near the station named Busti, situate about halfway between Goruckpur on the east and Fyzabad on the west, and consequently some 45 miles from Goruckpur, and nearly in 26° 45′ north latitude and 82° 42′ east longitude.

For the account of the circumstances attending the fall of this meteorite I am indebted to Mr. George Osborne, at that time Resident at the Busti Station, to whose care science owes the preservation of the stone that fell there. He presented it to the East-India Company, and for several years it stood in the Library of the India House. It was presented to the British Museum when Lord HALIFAX was Secretary of State for India, by the Secretary of State in Council. Mr. Osborne describes the fall as having taken place at 10h 10m A.M., announcing itself by a sudden explosion much louder and of a more detonating character than an ordinary thunderclap, increasing in intensity towards its termination. There was no trace of cloud in the sky, and the report lasted for a time that Mr. Osborne estimated at from three to five minutes. At Busti the report was not accompanied by the effects of concussion, while at Goruckpur it shook the glass and doors in the houses, the sound appearing at the latter station to approach in a direction from W.N.W. At Busti it seemed to one facing the north to come from the zenith; and though heard so loudly at Busti, and apparently still more loudly at Goruckpur, it was not noticed at a station thirty miles west of Busti. The course of the stone was probably a north-easterly to a south-westerly one, the explosion that shattered it having occurred soon after it had passed the longitude of Goruckpur. The stones fell at a place six miles south of Busti, and Mr. Osborne obtained a small one weighing about three pounds. How many fell was not ascertained, but all the others have been lost sight of, Mr. Osborne having in vain endeavoured to obtain a second.

The aspect of the specimen of this aërolite which Mr. Osborne preserved is in many respects very similar to the stone that fell at Bishopville, in South Carolina, U.S.A., on the 25th of March, 1843. The form and actual size of the stone are represented in Plate XXIII., in which two views from opposite points are given, the orientation being shown by the position of the letters A, B, C, D in the two views. The crust which coated the larger part of the stone was exceptional in character. At the flat end this crust was of a dark yellowish brown, with a few yellowish-white porphyritic-looking patches where the brown crust was thinner. In the large hollow portion on one side, near to C in the lower view, a yellowish enamel mingled with a very dark grey enamel is also relieved by white markings like the white felspar of a porphyry. In other places these white or yellowish-white markings, with their angular but unsymmetrical outlines, are seen sharply contrasted with the black-grey enamel only. It is difficult to connect the outlines of these porphyry-like markings with those of crystals of any mineral underlying them. Over augite and enstatite alike, where they occur in this stone, the crust seems to be similar in its features. I can only suppose the natural hue of the crust, due to the fusion of the silicates, to be a pale yellow; but that the metallic nickeliferous iron, found here and there in grains of considerable size, has, during the fusion and

dispersion of the outer parts of the stone in its career through the air, fused down with portions of the silicates into a dark and perhaps more fusible enamel that has mixed unevenly as it flowed over the less fluid glass of the silicate. The enamel, it should be added, has generally vesicular appearances when seen under a high power, as if gases had escaped from it during its fusion.

One end of the meteorite presented a remarkable feature; small round chestnut-prown spherules, coated with yellowish-white fused silicate, stood out from a well-defined nodule that was imbedded in this portion of the stone near N in the upper view. In these small spherules there might in one or two places be seen, with a lens, minute octahedral crystals with the lustre and colour of gold. These two minerals seemed scarcely to have been affected by the heat that fused the silicates in which they are imbedded, and which protected their surfaces from the action of the atmospheric oxygen; but in one or two cases the crust at these spots was rendered darker in colour by the influence of the nodule it covered.

It was indeed fortunate that this meteorite came in its entirety into the British Museum. A blow from a hammer (the too usual fate of Indian meteorites) would have scattered the contents of this nodule as dust, for its peculiarities were only visible from the outside on very careful inspection. A section was made so as to pass through this nodule; it was then seen to be definitely bounded by a black line, within which two distinct silicates could be detected, and the polished surface was dotted with the round spherules of the chestnut-brown mineral that has been alluded to. A representation of this section parallel to the line N is given in Plate XXIII.

The powder produced in the cutting of the meteorite and a few fragments of the separated portion, too small for distribution to other museums, were retained for chemical examination, and slides of the different minerals were worked from some of these fragments for the microscope. A small nodule of the metallic iron was also preserved for analysis. From the fragments the different minerals were picked out under the microscope, and among these a few specimens were found sufficiently complete to throw light on their crystallography.

IV. Oldhamite—Sulphide of Calcium.

I gave the name of Oldhamite to this mineral in 1862, when it first attracted my attention, though I had not then the opportunity of properly investigating it*.

Oldhamite is a pale chestnut-brown and, where pure, transparent mineral occurring in the Busti aërolite, and apparently also sparsely in that of Bishopville, in small nearly round spherules imbedded in enstatite or augite, or in a mixture of both. The outer surface of the spherules is generally partly coated by calcium sulphate, the result of the

^{*} I named it in compliment to Dr. Oldham, Director of the Indian Geological Survey, who in that year acted on behalf of the Asiatic Society of Calcutta on the occasion of that Society giving, in the most liberal spirit, to the British Museum large portions of several important aërolites that had fallen on Indian territory, and were preserved in its Museum.

oxidation of the sulphide. When the adhering silicate and this crust have been removed, the mineral is readily cleaved in three directions. The mean of nearly 200 measurements of the normal angles of these cleavage-planes gave 89° 57′. That this angle is really 90° and the mineral cubic in its system, rendered probable by the equal facility of the three cleavages, is placed beyond doubt by the fact that transparent sections made along either plane; when examined by polarised light, afford no indications whatever of double refraction. The hardness of the mineral is nearly 4; its density is 2.58. Boiled with water it breaks up, yielding a bright-yellow solution of calcium polysulphides and an insoluble residue. With acids it readily dissolves with evolution of hydrogen sulphide and deposition of sulphur.

The small amount of the mineral at command for analysis, the desirability of excluding as far as possible during the process all non-volatile materials from admixture with the constituents of the meteorite, and, as it afterwards proved, the unnecessary precaution of not using any reagent that might destroy or prevent the subsequent selection of the microscopic octahedra that have been alluded to, seemed to render a special method of analysis necessary.

Experimental analyses of calcium sulphide, formed by passing first hydrogen and subsequently hydrogen sulphide over caustic lime ignited in a glass tube, led to the employment of the following method*.

0.4696 grm. of the mineral, dried over sulphuric acid for thirty-six hours, were placed in a small flask with a stoppered funnel filled with previously boiled but cold water. Hydrogen, purified by traversing a solution of lead acetate and a U-tube containing glass moistened by that liquid, was then passed by a tube through the cork into the flask, whence it was conducted by a delivery-tube into a solution of 3 grms. of pure silver nitrate, and thence, finally, by a second tube through a test-tube similarly charged. First a little of the boiled water and strong hydrogen chloride were introduced by the funnel tube, and the hydrogen sulphide formed was swept out by the hydrogen as fast as it was generated. The action having ceased, the flask was carefully heated for six or seven hours, when the hydrogen no longer discoloured lead test-paper. The silver sulphide was then thrown on a weighed filter, washed with ammonia and water, dried at 100°, and weighed. Some sulphur separated in the flask; this, together with the undissolved silicates and golden-yellow crystals, was collected on a dry filter and weighed, and the sulphur was then removed by carbon disulphide, and its amount determined by the difference of weight. The yellow crystals were picked out from the undissolved residue. and there remained the silicates that had surrounded or been entangled with the spherules of Oldhamite.

The results of the first analysis are given below as No. I.; those of a second, in which 0.5061 grm. of the mineral in rather large spherules were taken, are given as No. II.

* This calcium sulphide, in colour and in all but its want of cohesion and crystalline characters, resembles Oldhamite. Thus formed it contained 44.3 per cent. (it should contain 44.44) of sulphur. Formed without the previous treatment with hydrogen it contained only 39.5 per cent.

TABLE I.

•	I.	II.
Undissolved silicate	7-644	8·456
Octahedra (Osbornite)	0-277	0.297
Dissolved silicate (enstatite)	$\left\{\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Si O}_{s} & . & 1.159 \\ \text{Mg} & . & 0.366 \end{array}\right\} \ 1.525$	$0.875 \ 0.276$ 1.151
Residuary magnesium (as mag- nesium monosulphide) }	$\left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} Mg & . & 1.257 \\ S & . & 1.676 \end{array} \right\} \ 2.933$	$1.229 \ 1.638$ 2.867
Calcium monosulphide	$\left\{\begin{array}{ccc} 8 & \cdot & \cdot & 35.888 \\ Ca & \cdot & \cdot & 44.860 \end{array}\right\} 80.748$	$\left\{ \frac{35\cdot 227}{44\cdot 034} \right\} 79\cdot 261$
Calcium sulphate (gypsum)	$ \left\{ \begin{cases} \text{Ca} & . & . & 0.830 \\ \text{S O}_{\bullet} & . & 1.993 \\ (\text{H}_{2}\text{O} & . & 0.747) \end{cases} \right\} \ 3.570 $	$ \left. \begin{array}{c} 0.856 \\ 2.054 \\ 0.770 \end{array} \right\} 3.680 $
Calcium carbonate	$\left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} \text{Ca} & \cdot & \cdot & 1.241 \\ \text{(CO}_3 & \cdot & 1.861) \end{array} \right\} \ \ 3.102$	
Iron sulphide (Troilite)		$ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Fe} & 1.288 \\ \text{S.} & 0.736 \end{array} \right\} \left. \begin{array}{l} 2.024 \end{array} \right. $
Iron (probably metallic)	Fe 0.507	0-261
	100-306	97-997

The dissolved silicate, as will be seen in the sequel, is most likely to be enstatite, that mineral being the more soluble of the two silicates in which the Oldhamite is imbedded. That a portion of the magnesium is present as sulphide is a necessary conclusion from the proportions of sulphur and of metal in the spherules. I have assumed the sulphuric acid to correspond to the ordinary hydrated calcium sulphate (gypsum), and the residuary calcium in analysis I. to be present as calcium carbonate. The result of this interpretation of the above analyses is that, if we deduct the silicates encrusting the Oldhamite together with the Osbornite and the iron that the spherules contain, we have the following composition for these spherules and their oxidised coating.

TABLE II.

		I.	II.	
Oldhamite { Calcium monosulphide Magnesium monosulphide	80.748	per cent. 89·369	79-261	per cent. 90-244
Magnesium monosulphide	2.933	3.246	2.867	3.264
Gypsum	3.570	3.951	3.680	4.189
Incrustation Calcium carbonate	3.102	3.434		
(Troilite	-		2.024	2.303
	90.353	100-000	87.832	100.000

The magnesium sulphide may be looked on either as a mechanically mixed ingredient or as a constituent of the Oldhamite*.

The existence of either of these substances in a meteorite serves to prove that the con-

^{*} In the second analysis the deficiency in the percentage may have been due to some small error in the determination of the lime; and any such small error, where the quantity of the mineral disposable for the analysis is so minute, becomes magnified considerably on calculating the percentage results.

ditions under which the ingredients of that rock came into their present form were very unlike those met with on the surface of our globe. Water and free oxygen must alike have been absent, or only present in inappreciable quantities; indeed the existence of the metallic iron in the state of minute division in which it so frequently occurs in meteorites would lead to a similar conclusion. But the evidence afforded by the aërolite of Busti seems, further, to point to a reducing agent having been present during the formation of its constituent minerals; while the crystalline structure of Oldhamite, and of the Osbornite next to be described, must certainly have been the result of fusion at an enormous temperature.

The detection of hydrogen by Professor Graham in meteoric iron tends to confirm the probability of the presence of a reducing agent among the conditions under which these meteoric minerals were formed.

V. Osbornite.

The golden-yellow microscopic octahedra that have been mentioned in the description of Oldhamite were furnished by the analysis of that mineral to the amount of only 0.0028 grm., the first analysis having yielded 0.0013, and the second 0.0015 grm. Yet even this minute weight, forming less than 0.3 per cent. of that of the Oldhamite, was divided between upwards of 150 crystals. These crystals were nevertheless capable of being measured by the goniometer.

This microscopic mineral I wish to name Osbornite in honour of Mr. Osborne, and in order to commemorate the important service that gentleman rendered to science in preserving and transmitting to London in its entirety the stone which his zeal saved at the time of its fall, and in recording all he could collect about the circumstances associated with that fall.

That the octahedra of Osbornite are "regular" octahedra will be apparent from the following results of their measurement. A supplementary lens applied to the object-glass of the telescope of the goniometer enables the observer to determine that position of the face of a crystal in which the illumination from a narrow slit in a distant window is at its maximum. In this way the angles between faces can be measured when the faces themselves are too small, or are too dull, or too much striated for use as reflectors of the image of the slit.

This approximate method of measuring the angles of so minute a crystal, when used with some crystals of Osbornite, gave for:

						Regular octahedron.
111	111 a mean	of fifteen	measurements on two crystals	70°	27'	70° 31′
111	111	nine	measurements on ditto ditto	109°	31'	109° 28′
111	111	six	measurements on ditto ditto	69°	58'	
111	111	six	measurements on a third crystal	70°	37'	

The analysis of this mineral presented a very difficult problem, the total amount

available being too minute for any quantitative results to be expected from it. Moreover it was found that these little crystals resisted the action of the acids when in their integrity, and when crushed their minute size rendered the manipulation most difficult and the results uncertain. Boiled for a long while in nitric acid they were unchanged; and even hydrogen fluoride had no apparent action on them. They passed unscathed through a fusion of a small amount of Oldhamite with potassium-sodium carbonate; though when fused with potassium chlorate, a crystal of Osbornite entirely disappeared—perhaps from its escaping notice.

The crystals are very brittle, and after being crushed the powder retains the beautiful golden colour of the surface, which is therefore intrinsic and not due to a tarnish; to which cause, however, a ruddy hue in two of the crystals may have been due.

A few of the crystals placed in a glass tube and ignited in a current of dry oxygen, underwent only an external oxidation. Similarly treated in a slow current of chlorine they were decomposed; but they sank into the glass before the decomposition was complete. An experiment was therefore made in which the crystals were supported in a cavity scooped into a small fragment of the thinnest Japanese porcelain. The chlorine was passed through the apparatus and the tube ignited previously to the introduction of the octahedra, in order to determine that the chlorine was without action on any part of the apparatus. This apparatus consisted of a small tube in which the porcelain splinter was placed; one end of it was drawn out so as to form a U tube of considerable length, surrounded at the bend by a freezing-mixture, and dipping ultimately into a tube of pure water.

The whole of the available material, except a few crystals reserved for the goniometer, was placed in the cavities of the porcelain splinter, and dry chlorine allowed slowly to traverse the tube. On the application of heat shortly below redness, a glow was seen to commence among the minute crystals, which, extending itself through the whole, lasted for a few seconds.

The crystals appeared to have somewhat increased in bulk; they still retained their forms, but their metallic lustre had left them, and their colour became of a pale honey-yellow.

The tube had become slightly iridescent in front of the assayed mineral; the drawnout portion of it contained a small amount of a white sublimate, and a slight fuming came with each chlorine bubble through the water.

The altered crystals on being exposed to the air soon began to deliquesce and assumed a pasty consistence; treated with water, they only partially dissolved and gave the solution an alkaline reaction. This solution gave no precipitate with ammonia, but yielded one to ammonium oxalate. The residue undissolved by this water dissolved, though neither with ease nor quite completely, in hydrogen chloride.

This acid solution gave with ammonia a slight precipitate, which was redissolved in acid and reprecipitated: it seemed to contain a little iron. Filtered from this, the solution further gave a very distinct precipitate on being treated with ammonium oxalate and

kept for some time warm. Hydrogen disodium phosphate gave a very slight flocculent turbidity to the filtrate from that precipitate, but it had not the appearance of the magnesium salt.

The interior of the portion of the tube drawn out and kept cool at the bend by a cooling-mixture was lined by a slightly yellowish-white sublimate.

This white body was treated with hydrogen chloride, in which it was at first somewhat difficult of solution, and was added to the water into which the chlorine had been passed. That liquid, which was acid in its reaction, was evaporated down as a clear solution till it had become but a few drops, and barium chloride was added to it. A precipitate of barium sulphate was formed, which after some time was filtered off and weighed. It weighed 0.0008 grm. There can be no doubt, therefore, that Osbornite contains sulphur as an important constituent. The excess of barium was removed and ammonia added, which threw down a very decided flocculent nearly white precipitate. The filtrate from this precipitate left no visible residue on evaporation. The precipitate itself readily redissolved in hydrogen chloride, and was again reprecipitated by ammonia; it resembled alumina in appearance, but it proved to be entirely insoluble in potash. The experiment, more than once repeated, of redissolving and reprecipitating it, as before, invariably gave a body insoluble in potash.

Dissolved again in acid and all excess of the acid having been removed, the addition of sodium hyposulphite produced, on warming it, a white precipitate. Restored to its former condition of as nearly neutral a solution as possible, on being treated by an excess of potassium sulphate, it gave a white precipitate.

The insolubility of the ammonia-precipitate in caustic potash having pointed to the probability that either titanium or zirconium oxide was present, some preliminary comparative experiments were made which led to the following method.

Three small glass tubes, similar in all respects, were taken, and into one a portion of the precipitate formed by ammonia from the Osbornite was transferred; into a second a quantity to appearance rather less of titanium oxide, formed in a similar manner by solution in acid and reprecipitation by ammonia, was put; and the third was similarly charged with zirconium oxide, formed in as similar a manner as possible by passing chlorine over a heated mixture of zirconia and charcoal, and treating the sublimate as the mineral sublimate had been treated*.

Hydrogen chloride and water were next added in equal amounts to each tube. A minute bit of magnesium wire was dropped into each, and the changes were watched under the microscope with an inch objective. After a certain period black patches began to appear on the magnesium wire in the titanium oxide tube, and a bluish coloration could be faintly discerned: in the tube with the precipitate from the Osbornite the magnesium retained its silvery brightness entirely unstained, as did the wire in the zirconia

* It is remarkable that in this experiment the same internal iridescence of the glass tube was observed as in the experiment with the mineral, and the chloride sublimed in the same manner and with the same appear-

tube. Repetition of the experiment confirmed the delicacy of this test for the presence of titanium oxide, a test tried by which the precipitate from the Osbornite failed invariably to show any evidence of the presence of that oxide. Phosphorus was carefully looked for, but ammonium molybdate failed to give any trace of an indication of its presence.

A negative test of the above kind would not afford sufficient ground for asserting the presence of zirconium; on the other hand, it would seem a fair presumption that titanium at least is not present in Osbornite. That the metal to which these reactions are attributable is not zirconium, however, may be affirmed with some certainty. Mr. Sorby has made the pyrognostic characters of this element a special study; and I gave that gentleman rather more than half of the minute amount I possessed of the precipitated oxide.

He examined it in a microscopic borax bead, and asserts that he failed to obtain the crystals characteristic of zirconium, and that the chief and probably the only constituent of this substance is titanic acid, as the crystalline deposit in the bead exactly accords with the very peculiar forms assumed under the same conditions by that oxide.

With so infinitesimal an amount of substance at one's disposal it seems impossible to investigate further the nature of this element. Even the methods of the spectrum-analysis are not yet reduced to a form available for determining the nature of an element of this group in so minute an amount. That it is not zirconium the evidence of so accurate an experimentalist as Mr. Sorby may be taken to prove; that it is titanium seems scarcely compatible with the comparative experiments I made with it and with titanium chloride. It is certain, however, that Osbornite consists of calcium, and what may be provisionally termed a titanoid element, possibly titanium itself, with a trace of iron and combined with sulphur in some peculiarly stable form. This form can hardly be that of a combination of the sulphides of the metals merely; one cannot well conceive such a compound resisting the action of acids. The sulphides of the metals of this class, however, are little known; while those of calcium associated with oxygen in the form of what are termed oxysulphides need also further investigation.

The fact of the Osbornite crystals being met with occasionally in the variety of augite, which will be presently described, as an ingredient of this meteorite, and which is for the most part confined to that nodule of the meteorite in which the Oldhamite occurs, suggested a search in that silicate for an oxide corresponding to what had been found in the Osbornite. The precipitates thrown down by ammonia from the acid solution of the bases in the different analyses of that augite were therefore brought together and examined. They contained some ferric oxide; but this was associated with a small amount of a colourless oxide entirely insoluble in potash, which, when tried by the tests that had been employed with the Osbornite precipitate, gave exactly the same results as these had given. The dichroism of this augite is very marked; and on looking through one of its faces (the face 0 1 0) a tint (like that of the bluish anatase from Brazil) is seen

that appears to be due to certain minute interlaminated layers permeating the augite, but which require the microscope for their exhibition.

In whatever manner, whether as a constituent base in the augite itself, or as a foreign body interlaminated with it in the direction of the planes 001,010, the evidence of the augite goes to confirm that of the analysis of the Osbornite, namely, that a metal nearly related to, if it be not titanium is present in both minerals. Possibly the minute interlaminated mineral alluded to may consist of Osbornite of sufficient thinness to be transparent, and to give the colour alluded to. It is remarkable that the metallic sheen on the plane 100 of the augite is of a golden yellow by reflected light, and exhibits the bluish tint by transmitted light.

It may not be out of place here to call attention to a singular golden-yellow incrustation, cubic in the form of its particles, obtained by Professor Maller, of Alabama University, U. S. A., by heating metallic zirconium to an intense heat in a furnace with lime and aluminium. These crystals were not analysed, but it is not impossible that sulphur from the fuel might have supplied that ingredient, and that these crystals were in their nature analogous to those revealed to us in this meteorite, for like the Osbornite crystals they were not attacked by the strongest acids (see American Journal of Science, Series 2, vol. xxviii. 1859, p. 346).

VI. The Augitic Constituent of the Busti Aërolite.

Associated with the spherules of calcium sulphide that have been described as occurring in a nodule in this aërolite, and also less plentifully distributed through the rest of its mass, is the silicate, to which allusions have already been made as a variety of augite, and as containing traces of an element with some of the chemical characteristics of titanium. This silicate is of a pale violet-grey colour, intimately mixed in the form of crystalline grains with another silicate presently to be described. These crystalline lilac-grey grains, when isolated as much as possible from the other minerals, present a few crystalfaces, among which one as a cleavage-plane is prominent. The rest are very imperfect; and it is extremely difficult to get any measurements that are at all reliable from them. The goniometrical observations, however, were sufficient, together with the optical characters of the mineral, to determine that it belonged to the oblique system. These measurements gave the following approximate values:—

		Those of diopside being
001	100 = about 75 30	7 3 59
001	110 = , 81	79 29
110	$100 = 45^{\circ} 54' \text{ to } 47 26$	46 27
110	$\overline{1}10 = 85 8 , 86 20$	87 5
100	111!= 53 25 ,, 54 15	5 3 50
$0\ 0\ 1$	$\bar{1}10 = 100 8$	100 57

A slide cut for the microscope from a fragment of the nodule was found to exhibit a section of one of the crystals of this mineral cut very nearly parallel to the plane of symmetry. Two of the edges bounding this section were parallel, the one to a series of lines running through the crystal corresponding to its cleavage-planes, the other to certain bands that are constantly present in this augite, generally parallel to the plane 0.01, and formed of a white doubly refracting silicate, no doubt of the enstatite next to be described, intercalated in microscopic layers through the augite. These two edges represent the planes 1.00 and 0.01 as seen in a section nearly parallel to the plane of symmetry. They gave a normal angle of 0.01, $1.00 = 75^{\circ} 15'$. In diopside this angle is $73^{\circ} \cdot 59$.

Light traversing this section of the crystal between crossed Nicols is at its maximum of extinction when polarised in a plane parallel or perpendicular to a line, making with 001 an angle very near to 22° 45′, and with 100 an approximate angle of 52° 30′. In diopside the second mean line makes corresponding angles of 22° 5′ and 51° 6′ with these normals. These measurements were made by an eyepiece goniometer fitted to the microscope, and having a fixed spider-line to indicate the plane of polarisation, while a rotating line is employed to measure on a graduated circle the inclinations of the edges and other directions in the section.

A section made parallel to the plane 100 exhibited one of the optic axes on the limit of the field of view in a Nörremberg's polariscope. The plane containing the optic axes is perpendicular to the edge [100,001], and the optical character in the centre of the field is negative.

In all the above respects the mineral accords with diopside.

When looked through in a direction nearly normal to 001 or 010, or indeed in any direction parallel to the zone circle [001,010], the crystals show a remarkable dichroism, which is, however, especially conspicuous when the direction is nearly normal to the plane 001.

If the section is parallel to the plane of symmetry, light polarised in a plane perpendicular to the principal section containing the acute mean line and the axis of symmetry is transmitted, of a pale pink lilac; when the crystal is turned 90°, so as to bring the same principal section into parallelism with the plane of polarisation, the transmitted tint is bluer, exhibiting a pale slate-blue or lavender.

The plane 100 presents a somewhat facile cleavage, much more readily obtained than cleavages which are also met with on the planes of the form 110, the latter being interrupted and uneven. The plane 100 is also conspicuous for a remarkable metallic lustre, recalling that seen on some kinds of diallage, but of a fine golden hue.

Two analyses of this mineral by the method already described, the silica being distilled as silicium difluoride and determined as potassium fluosilicate, gave the following results:—

Silicic acid		τ. 55·389	11. 55·594	Mean. 55·491	Oxygen ratios. 29.28
Magnesia.		23.621	23.036	23.328	9.331
Lime		20.02	19.942	19.981	5.709
Iron oxide		0.78	0.309		
Soda		0.554	[0.554]		
Lithia		a trace	[a trace]		
		100.364	99.435		

Viewed as a magnesium and calcium silicate the percentage composition becomes—

	The formula (§ Mg & Ca) Si O, requires
Silicic acid 56·165	56.604
Magnesia 23.612	23.585
Lime 20.223	19.811
100.000	100.000

This does not accord with the analyses of the ordinary varieties of augite, in which the calcium is usually in excess of the magnesium.

It is, however, to be observed that a small deduction of the corresponding magnesium silicate (enstatite) has to be made by reason of the presence of the white mineral intercalated in layers along the direction parallel to the plane 001, and sometimes also to a second plane of the crystal. This mineral is doubtless the enstatite next to be described, and its presence would only modify the true formula of the augite by adding to the proportion of the magnesian constituent. The amount of one equivalent of enstatite to three of augite that this explanation would require, is more than microscopic observations would warrant; and it is probable that the augite itself is richer in magnesium than is usual in terrestrial augites.

The small amount of the oxide that in this augite corresponds to the ingredient of Osbornite that I identify with a titanoid metal, is met with in the precipitate by ammonia from the solution of the bases, and is included with the iron oxide in the above analyses.

VII. Enstatite as a Constituent of the Busti Meteorite.

Besides the augitic mineral that has just been described, there is present in this meteorite another silicate which is in fact its most important ingredient. The augite is present in greatest quantity in the nodule that contains the calcium sulphide, though it is met with in smaller amount in the other parts of the meteorite. But associated with it everywhere, and otherwise forming the mass of the stone, is the mineral I have next to describe. As seen in a microscopic section, it presents the appearance of a number of more or less fissured crystals with different degrees of transparency, sometimes quite clear, sometimes nearly opaque, and with a more or less symmetrical polygonal outline. These crystals are imbedded in a magma of fine-grained silicate, through which a sort of irregular meshwork of an opaque white mineral is seen to ramify. When the ingredients

are mechanically separated and examined, it is not difficult to distinguish what seem to be three different minerals. One is rare; it is colourless and transparent, and may be obtained in small splinters that have the appearance of being the result of a definite cleavage. The little planes thus obtained are too often merely divisional surfaces without crystallographic significance; and where they possess a more definite character, they present such rude faces that the values obtained for the angles can rarely be relied on. Another form of the mineral mass is that of a grey semitransparent splintery mineral, the fragments being generally very composite. From these two varieties I failed in obtaining the measurements of an entire zone, the planes in which belonged to the same individual, and the attempt to cleave these minute individuals apart only serves to destroy them. The third form is that of a dark grey glistening crystalline substance tabular in form and very opaque. It presented cleavages indistinctly marking the faces of a prism, for which the mean of several measurements gave an angle of $\left\{\frac{88^\circ 35'}{91^\circ 25'}\right\}$; and to the planes $(1\ 1\ 0)$ of this prism a dull face $(0\ 0\ 1)$ is perpendicular, which seems in this case to be a second and less facile cleavage.

The results subjoined were obtained from seven selected fragments of the other forms of this mineral. They lack the important check which the polariscope affords; for the substance was usually too opaque for the use of this instrument, or else too composite to give any value to the results obtained with it. The fragments experimented upon were extremely minute and fragile, often breaking into powder while being mounted for the goniometer, and the angles are necessarily only approximate.

Found.		In Breitenbach enstatite.
100 110 a	about 46	45 52
110 110 87	10 to 88	88 15
100 101 41	. 34	41 12
010 011* a	about 40	40 21

The planes $1\,0\,0$ and $1\,1\,0$ are cleavages. In some cases, generally where the crystals are very composite, a cleavage seems to run parallel to a plane inclined at 73° to 74° to the face $(1\,0\,0)$ and 90° to the face $(0\,1\,0)$. As the forms of the mineral presenting this plane contain calcium, I have been uncertain whether to attribute the importance of this plane in certain specimens to an intermixture of augite with the enstatite. The plane $1\,0\,4$ is also a conspicuous one on the crystals of enstatite in the Breitenbach meteorite, and the angle $(74^\circ\,4')$ which it makes with the plane $1\,0\,0$ in that mineral is very near that of the inclination $(73^\circ\,59')$ of the planes $1\,0\,0$ and $0\,0\,1$ of diopside.

The chemical analysis of these three minerals shows that they are really enstatite under different aspects. Where the substance contains no lime it presents itself as a simply prismatic mineral, the dark grey tabular variety; where lime is present, though to the amount of less than 2 per cent., the crystalline structure becomes more complex,

and it is far more difficult to obtain pieces in which it is sufficiently definite in character to allow of any measurements at all. It seems probable that the augite is in these cases blended in minute quantity, by a sort of tesselation, with the enstatite, somewhat as the enstatite is seen to be intercalated in narrow bands between layers of the augite already described, although the enstatite in the latter case is in much larger relative amount. But I have failed to obtain satisfactory proof of the actual presence of the augite from the optical characters of the sections of the mineral as seen in the microscope; though these frequently exhibit a structure in a high degree composite in its crystalline characters, the principal sections of the different parts of the mineral being in these cases disposed at all sorts of angles of mutual inclination. The analysis of these minerals yielded the following numbers:—

Dar	k	gre	ey tabular	variety.	Transparent white variety.			
Silicic acid			Percentages. 57.597	Oxygen ratios. 30.718	Percentages. 58-437	Oxygen ratios. 31·166)		
Magnesia			40.64	16.238	38-942	15.564 = 16.043		
Lime				-	1.677	0.479		
Iron oxide			1.438		1.177			
Potash .			0.394		0.332			
Soda			0.906		0.357			
			100.975		100-922			

Semitransparent grey variety.

	1.		ı	П.	1	III.
	Percentage	s. Oxygen ratios.	Percentag	es. Oxygen ratios.	Percentages.	Oxygen ratios.
Silicic acid	. 57.037	30.419	57.961	30.912	57.754	30.802
Magnesia	40.574	16.217 16.8	39.026	15.598) 16.0	38-397	15:347 1 10:01
Lime	. 2.294	0.655	1.524	0.435 } 10.0	2.376	$\frac{15.347}{0.678}$ } 16.01
Iron oxide	. 0.867		0.154		0.423	
Soda	. —		0.68		0.657	
Potash .			0.569		0.569	•
Lithia .	,				0.016	
	100.772		99-914		100-192	

The greater part of the soda and part of the potash in these analyses, as in those of the augite, is certainly due to an impurity traceable to a minute amount of these bases contaminating the hydrochloric acid employed. The iron is present partly as metallic iron in a state of minutest subdivision, in small part also without doubt in combination in the magnesian silicate. In every case the bases are slightly in excess of the amount requisite for the formula of enstatite. It would seem highly probable, from the comparison of these with the known analyses and with such as I shall have to offer of other meteorites, that where in these bodies the conditions under which the rock was formed were such that the silicic acid was in excess of that required by the formula for enstatite, it has remained uncombined in the form of a crystallised silica with the specific gravity of fused quartz; but that where the magnesium and other bases were in excess, a basic

silicate with the formula of olivine absorbed the supplementary portion of these bases. Where calcium is present, it probably converts into an augite a portion of the materials that otherwise would go to constitute enstatite.

In none of the particular meteorites hitherto examined in the Museum Laboratory has a trace of alumina been found, though it has been carefully looked for, and consequently no felspathic ingredient has been detected in them.

VIII. General Analysis of the Busti Meteorite.

In order to determine approximately the proportions in which the different ingredient minerals were present in the meteorite, and to ascertain whether any other mineral had escaped detection, an analysis of the fragments and dust of the stone from the neighbourhood of the nodule containing the sulphides and the augite was made. The material employed was that obtained on cutting the meteorite by a dry wheel-saw, used to prevent the introduction of foreign substances. 1.874 grm. were taken for analysis. The sulphur was determined, as in the case of the Oldhamite, as sulphide of silver, and as separated by means of carbon disulphide. Heated with hydrogen chloride, and afterwards with potash, there was dissolved by those reagents and by the carbon disulphide

the residue being $\frac{83 \cdot 127}{100 \cdot 000}$

The soluble part gave the results in column I., the insoluble part those in column II.; the sulphur and sulphuric acid being supposed to be present as calcium sulphide and sulphate respectively.

I.	1		II.
Calcium sulphate 0.442			
Calcium monosulphide 4.133			
Iron oxide 0.194	Oxygen ratios.	0.891	Oxygen ratios.
Silicic acid 6.514	3.474	46.357	24.727
Lime 0.022	0.006	12.375	3.535
Magnesia 5.055	2.02	23.266	9.299
Potash , 0.099	0.017	0.14	0.023 > 12.974
Soda 0-118	0.03	0.455	0.117
Lithia		0.019	0·01 J
16.577		\$3.503	

The insoluble part in this analysis would correspond to a composition Si O_3 ($Mg_{\frac{3}{4}}$ $Ca_{\frac{3}{4}}$), which, if we consider the calcium as being present as a constituent of the augite and the formula of this mineral to be Si O_3 ($Mg_{\frac{3}{4}}$ $Ca_{\frac{3}{4}}$), will give for the insoluble silicate of the rock in the neighbourhood of the nodule a composition of two equivalents of augite to one of enstatite. As the analysis of the soluble portion showed that some of the above minerals had been dissolved, it was thought advisable to determine what and how much of them were rendered soluble by the action of hydrogen chloride in the cold. For this purpose some fresh material, selected partly from the neighbourhood of the

nodule, partly from a portion of the meteorite consisting entirely of silicates, was submitted to the action of a mixture of one of hydrogen chloride and two of water for sixty-six hours at ordinary temperatures. Some sulphuretted hydrogen was given off and 4·419 per cent. dissolved. By a further treatment of the insoluble portion with soda 1·204 per cent. was removed from it. The acid had dissolved 0·501 per cent. silica, an amount of calcium corresponding to 1·285 per cent. of Oldhamite, 1·896 per cent. of magnesia, and 0·564 per cent. of iron. The oxygen ratios of the silica and magnesia dissolved are as 0·91 to 0·758, and show that of the 3·601 per cent. magnesian silicates extracted about 2·65 per cent. was olivine, the residue being enstatite*.

A formula for the augite rather richer in lime would no doubt give a truer statement of the composition; but it is as impossible to separate the small amount of enstatite intercalated in the layers of the augite, as it is to distinguish and remove the latter mineral from the enstatite with which it appears in general to be so intimately blended.

IX. The Action of Acids on the Enstatite and Augite.

As it appeared of some importance to determine the degree to which these meteoric minerals were soluble in the acids used for separating the silicates of a meteorite, and whether an olivinous constituent could be found in the Busti aërolite associated with the enstatite, or with some other silicate, the augite and the enstatite described in the previous sections were submitted to this solvent action. Alternately digested for many hours at 100° C. in strong hydrogen chloride, diluted with its volume of water and in caustic potash for ten or twelve hours to remove the separated silica, each of the three

* In 1863 Mr. William Dancer analysed some of this powder from the cutting of this meteorite in the Laboratory of Professor Bunsen at Heidelberg.

The results, which he was so good as to place in my hands, were as follow:-

Si O₂ 52.73 MgO 37.22Fe O 4.28 == Mn O 0.01 Ca O 1.18 Ni O 0.78 CaSO, = 1.58 Ca, PO, trace = Ca Cl 0.01 = NaS 0.76KO trace Li O trace HO 0.92 99.47

"The mass of the stone," he says, "is evidently a monosilicate of magnesia, lime, potash, and lithia; the iron and nickel existing in small particles as nickel-iron together with a small portion of manganese. The percentage of substance soluble in water is 1.03; this consists of sulphide of sodium, chloride of calcium, sulphate of lime, and traces of lithia and potash." Of course from such material as was in Mr. Dancen's hands it was impossible for him to separate the different minerals.

forms of enstatite proved to be acted upon; and the results in each case showed that the acid exercises simply a solvent action upon the mineral without separating it into two or more distinct silicates.

The subjoined Table records these experiments. The different degrees in which the acid dissolved the minerals in either case was due to the more or less complete character of the trituration to which the minerals had been subjected.

I deemed it desirable in one case (and I selected the transparent variety for this purpose) to repeat the process three times so as to remove any doubt as to the nature of the action exercised by the acid.

Of the greyish-white variety, 1.0686 grm. was submitted to the action of acid for twenty hours at 100°, and subsequently to that of potash, to remove separated silica, for twelve hours. It yielded

The analysis of the 9.414 per cent. dissolved is given in column I. of the Table.

Of the grey tabular variety of enstatite 0.1478 grm. were treated by hydrogen chloride for sixteen hours at 100°, and subsequently by potash for a similar time.

The dissolved portion was 0.0115, viz.
$$\begin{cases} \text{by acid}, & 0.0047 = 3.179 \\ \text{by potash}, & 0.0068 = 4.6 \end{cases}$$
 = 7.779

The residue unacted on was 0.1363 = 92.19

The 7.779 per cent. dissolved gave on analysis numbers the approximate composition of which is given in column II.

Of the white variety of the enstatite 0.2082 grm. yielded on a first treatment for twenty hours with acid, and subsequently with potash,

Dissolved mineral=
$$0.0264$$
, viz. $\begin{cases} \text{by acid,} & 0.0164 = 7.877 \\ \text{by potash,} & 0.01 = 4.803 \end{cases} = 12.68$ and undissolved= $0.1818............. = 87.319$

The approximate composition of the 12.68 of dissolved mineral is given in column III. On a second treatment of the undissolved portion, whereof after two hours further trituration 0.1674 grm. were operated on as before with acid for thirty, and with potash for twelve hours.

The mineral dissolved=0.1137, viz.
$$\begin{cases} \text{by acid}, & 0.0437 = 41.766 \\ \text{by potash}, & 0.07 & = 26.074 \end{cases} = 67.84$$
Mineral unacted on=0.0539 = 32.16

On a third treatment in a similar way 0.0424 grm. yielded:

Of mineral dissol	ved	=0	0.02	17,	viz. by ac	cid, 0.0091 =	per cent. = $\frac{21 \cdot 47}{29 \cdot 71}$ = $51 \cdot 18$
Of mineral unact	ed	on=	=0	020			=48.82
					I.	II.	III.
Silicic acid					5.408	5.141	6.724
Magnesia .					2.367	1.353	4.61
Lime					1.048	0.270	0.432
Iron oxide					0.187	0.676	0.576
Potash					0.121	0.528	0.504
Lithia					Marine Comment	trace	trace
					9:131	7.968	12.846
Soda found					0.126	1.217	1.042

In the last two treatments of the white silicate the quantities, 0.0437 and 0.0091 grm., of ingredients dissolved by the acid and 0.07 and 0.0126 of silicic acid dissolved by the potash were too small for even approximate analysis. The ratio of silicic acid to the bases, neglecting the small amount of the former dissolved by the acid, is in the last case in the ratio of $58.4 \le 0.2 \le$

The degree to which the augite is soluble was determined by subjecting this mineral to a treatment similar to that by which the enstatite was dissolved; 0.2714 grm. so treated for eighteen hours by acid, and a similar time by potash at 100° C., gave 0.2614 of unchanged, and 0.0193 of dissolved mineral. This corresponds to 7.384 per cent. of the latter and 92.616 of the former.

There can be little doubt from these results that the action of acid on the minerals with the formula of enstatite or of augite is that simply of a solvent.

X. The Iron of the Busti Meteorite.

A small pepita of the iron, weighing 0·1997 grm., contained in the meteorite was analysed. A small quantity of silicates and of glistening Schreibersite was left at first undissolved by hydrogen chloride. A second treatment with acid dissolved the latter.

The first solution contained a trace of phosphoric acid, and a small quantity of hydrogen sulphide came off from the iron during its solution. The metallic constituents of the dissolved portion were separately determined, and an analysis was also made of the Schreibersite. The results were:

per cent.

Silicate	s					16	725	
Schreib								
	Iron .			=0	.736	;		
	Nickel							
	Phospho	orus		=0	.07			
						- 1.		
Iron .						79.0	069	
Nickel .						3.5	205	
						100.	000	
or, omitting the silicat	e,							
Tron-nio	kal allav		ſI	ron			94.949	100.700
II on-life	Iron-nickel alloy		lN	licke	l.		3.849	190,190
			(I	ron			0.884)
Schreibe	ersite .		$\langle N \rangle$	licke	l.		0.234	1.202
	ersite .		(F	hosp	horu	ıs.	0.084)
						:	100.000	, ;

The quantity was far too small to encourage a search for cobalt and other metals.

Besides the nickeliferous iron, which is disseminated very sparsely, and in particles singularly unequal as regards their size and distribution, and with which troilite is associated in very small quantity, chromite is present as a constituent of small but appreciable amount.

The crystals of this mineral are distinct, and sometimes present minute brilliant faces and good angles for measurement. One of these gave the solid angle of a regular octahedron.

XI. On the Manegaum Meteorite of 1843.

Of the circumstances attending the fall of the Manegaum meteorite, and of its appearance as seen in section in the microscope, I gave some account in the Philosophical Magazine of 1863.

I was precluded at that time from making chemical analyses at the British Museum, and was unable to investigate with any precision the nature of this stone, which is one of those that, in the well-defined character of a chief ingredient, offers considerable advantages for the inquiry on which I am engaged.

The meteorite fell on the 29th of June*, 1843, at Manegaum in Khandeish, at half past three o'clock P.M. A very small part of it was preserved; and of this a little fragment was sent to the British Museum, as one among many valuable contributions of the kind from the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

^{*} The date usually assigned to this fall, viz. the 16th of July, is erroneous. The true day of the fall is given, in the Mahratta account of it, as the third day of the month Asarh sudi, on Thursday. I am indebted to General Cunningham for the identification of this date with the 29th of June, 1843. [For the account see Journal Assec. Bengal, vol. xiii. p. 880.]

The examination and the analysis of this meteorite had therefore to be performed on very minute quantities; in fact on a few grains of $d\ell bris$ that had become detached from the brittle little stone.

The conspicuous ingredient in this meteorite is a pale yellow-green, or primrose-coloured mineral, with a tint similar to that of a very pale periodt or chrysolite, occurring in crystalline grains cemented together, in a state of very slight aggregation, by a white opaque silicate, which in a microscopic section has a flocculent appearance.

The granules of green minerals present in the microscope the appearance of tolerably symmetrical crystals, and are seen of every size, from that of a small pin's head to that of a microscopic dust.

In separating this green mineral from the fragile mass, I have never succeeded in obtaining a crystal of it entire.

The mineral is enstatite; if, at least, we are to include under this name every isomorphous mixture of iron and magnesium silicates with the formula $M ext{Si } O_3$ and crystallised in the prismatic system, but without the distinguishing features either of hypersthene or of diaclasite.

Two of the grains selected from the picked green mineral for measurement gave the following results,—

Manegaum enstatite.	Breitenbach enstatite.			
100, 110 = about 46°	$4\overset{\circ}{5}$ $5\overset{\prime}{2}$			
$100, 101 = 49^{\circ} 4'$	48 49			
$110, \overline{1}10 = about 88^{\circ}$	88 16			
$110, 101 = 58^{\circ} 39'$	58 24			

The comparison of these measurements with those obtained from the enstatite of the Breitenbach siderolite given in the second column will suffice for the identification of the two minerals as enstatite.

The analysis of the Manegaum mineral was performed by the method of distillation already described. 0.2658 grm. was taken.

Magnesia = 0.0606 $22.799 = 9.119$	per cent. Oxygen ratios.						
Iron monoxide = 0.0546 $20.541 = 4.564$ 14.0	55.699 = 29.706	0.14805	=				Silicic acid
		0.0606	=				Magnesia
Lime = 0.0035 $1.316 = 0.376$	20.541 = 4.564 14.059	0.0546	==		е.	xide	Iron monox
	1.316 = 0.376	0.0035	=				Lime
0.26675 100.355	$\overline{100.355}$	$\overline{0.26675}$					

If we allow for the probable presence of a little augite, corresponding proportionately to the lime found in the analysis, this Manegaum mineral will have the formula of an enstatite richer in iron than even that of the Breitenbach siderolite, the formula for which is $(\frac{4}{5} \text{ Mg} \frac{1}{5} \text{ Fe})$ Si O₃. The formula $(\frac{2}{3} \text{ Mg} \frac{1}{3} \text{ Fe})$ Si O₃ requires a percentage composition of Si O₂=54·2; Mg O=24; Fe O=21·7, which would accord very closely with

that of the Manegaum enstatite if we deduct the 1.5 per cent. of silica that the analysis gives in excess.

The specific gravity of the Manegaum enstatite is 3:198, its hardness is 5-6.

A small portion of the meteorite was taken for analysis in its entirety. A black mineral disseminated in a band running through it in minute crystalline particles is chromite; its formula is assumed as Fe Cr₂O₄. 0.4078 grm. was analysed by the hydrogen fluoride method, and gave the following results:—

			per cent.	Oxyge	n ratios.
Silicic acid	=	$0\ 2187$	53.629 =	28	602
Magnesia	=	0.0951	23.32 =		
Iron monoxide	==	0.0835	$20\ 476 =$	4.55	
Iron monoxide	=	0 0013)		14.	305
Chromium sesquioxide	=	0.0029 } .	. 1.029		
Lime	=	0.0061	1.495 =	0.427	
		0.4076	99.949		

The silicic acid in this sample of the entire meteorite is in the exact proportion requisite for the enstatite formula; it is therefore not improbable that the excess found in the green enstatite may have been due to an error in the analysis rather than to the presence of either free silica or of a silicate with a higher proportion of this ingredient.

The Manegaum meteorite contains a very minute amount of meteoric iron, far too small for isolation and analysis; indeed the portion taken for analysis could hardly have contained a trace of it.

This meteorite is interesting as presenting us with an instance of a meteoric rock constituted of a single silicate, and that enstatite. It differs from the mass of the Busti meteorite in that the latter is a nearly pure magnesian enstatite, while that of Manegaum is a highly ferriferous one. The two meteorites concur also in the light they throw on the nature of the flocculent opaque white mineral seen in the microscopic sections of many meteorites. In these two cases, at least, that mineral is enstatite.

In concluding this memoir, in which I have endeavoured to deal as exhaustively as possible with the constitution and characters of two remarkable meteorites, I wish to record the great services rendered me in its investigation by Dr. Flight, Assistant in my Department at the British Museum, to whose manipulatory skill and care I am greatly indebted in the chemical part of the inquiry.

EXPLANATION OF THE PLATES.

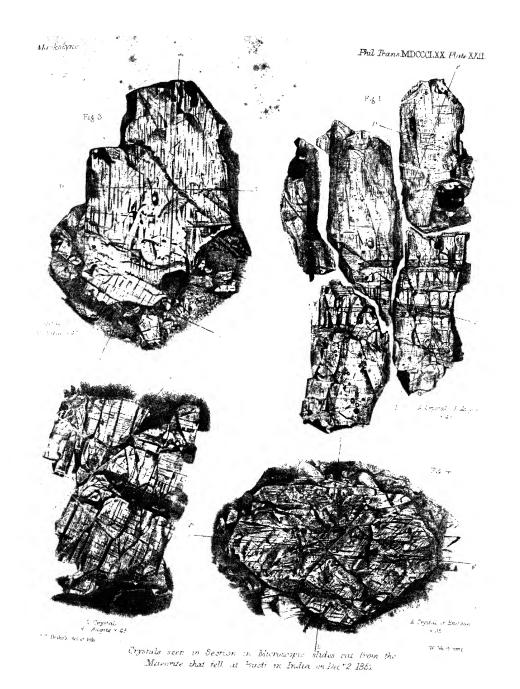
PLATE XXII.

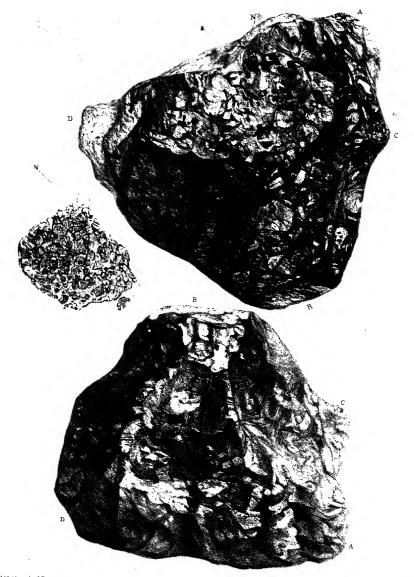
- Figs. 1 & 2 represent sections of crystals of the augite as seen in the microscope with a power of 45 linear; that in fig. 1 is nearly in the zone [100, 010] and a little oblique to the plane 100; that in fig. 2 is slightly oblique to the plane 001, and a little so also to the zone [001, 010]. The lines P, P indicate the planes of vibration.
- Figs. 3 & 4 represent sections, as seen in a microscopic slide cut from the meteorite, of crystals of enstatute, that in fig. 3 being nearly in the zone of the prism planes, and that in fig. 4 being nearly perpendicular to these.

PLATE XXIII.

Representation of the Busti meteoric stone, in two views taken from opposite points.

The letter N indicates the position of the nodule containing the Oldhamite and Osbornite, of which a section is also represented in the Plate. All the drawings are of the natural size.





cm nat on sten + by J. Erxleben

WWest imp.

XI. Note on an Extension of the Comparison of Magnetic Disturbances with Magnetic Effects inferred from observed Terrestrial Galvanic Currents; and Discussion of the Magnetic Effects inferred from Galvanic Currents on days of Tranquil Magnetism.

By George Biddell Airy, Astronomer Royal, F.R.S.

Received December 22, 1869,—Read February 3, 1870

In a communication to the Royal Society, which was honoured by publication in the Philosophical Transactions for 1868, I described the methods and gave the results of comparing the Magnetic Disturbances which might be expected as consequent on the Terrestrial Galvanic Currents recorded by the self-registering galvanometers of the Royal Observatory of Greenwich, with the Magnetic Disturbances actually registered by the self-registering magnetometers. The comparison was limited to seventeen days (1865, October 5 and 31; 1866, October 4; 1867, April 4.5, 7, 8, 9, 11, May 4, 14, 28, 31, June 1, 2, 7, 24), various days having been omitted in consequence of a doubt on the uniformity of the clock-movement of the registering-barrel, which afterwards proved to be unfounded. The results of the comparison were exhibited in curves, engraved copies of which are given in the volume of publication. I expressed my opinion that it was impossible to doubt the general causal connexion of the Galvanic Currents with the Magnetic Disturbances, but that some points yet remained to be cleared up.

As soon as circumstances permitted, I undertook the examination of the whole of the Earth-currents recorded during the establishment of the Croydon and Dartford Wires (namely from 1865 April 1 to 1867 December 31), as far as they should appear to bear upon this and similar questions. For this purpose the days of observation were divided by Mr. Glaisher into three groups. Group No. 1 contained days of considerable magnetic disturbance (or days of considerable galvanic disturbance, which are always the same), including, besides the seventeen days above-mentioned, the thirty-six days of the following list:—1865, April 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, May 14, 17, July 7, 15, August 14, 19, 26, September 8, 16, 28, October 4, 6, 10, 12, 14, November 1; 1866, August 11, 23, September 8, 9, 12, 13, 17, 18, 25, October 6, 7, 10, 30, November 26; 1867, February 8; making in all fifty-three days of considerable magnetic disturbance. Group No. 2 consisted of days of moderate magnetic disturbance, and of these no further notice was taken. Group No. 3 contained the days of tranquil magnetism, and the discussion of these will form the principal part of the present Memoir.

The comparisons of the additional thirty-six disturbed days were made in every respect by the same process as those of the seventeen days in the former paper; the operations of every kind were directed, as before, by Mr. GLAISHER; and the results are exhibited in the same way, in curves, drawn with great care by Mr. WILLIAM CARPENTER NASH, Assistant in the Magnetical and Meteorological Department of the Royal Observatory. While submitting these curves to the examination of the Royal Society, as presenting to the Society the evidence on which conclusions as to the relation between the galvanic currents and the magnetic disturbances must rest, I remark that the class and completeness of the evidence which they afford appear to be precisely similar to those offered by the curves appended to the First Memoir, and that the necessity for multiplying copies of them is not, perhaps, very pressing.

The conclusions arrived at in the former investigation were these:-

- 1. The general agreement of the curves, especially in the bold inequalities, is very striking; particularly in the curves relating to Northerly Force.
- 2. The small irregularities in the curves of galvanic origin are more numerous than those in the curves of magnetic origin.
- 3. The irregularities in the curves of galvanic origin usually precede, in time, those of magnetic origin, especially as regards Westerly Force.
- 4. The proportions of the magnitudes of rise and fall in the curves often differ sensibly, especially as regards Westerly Force.
- 5. The Northerly Force appears, on these days of magnetic storms, to be increased; whereas general experience leads us to expect that it would be diminished.

These conclusions are all supported by examination of the curves formed from the new investigations; I am still unable to suggest any explanation of the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th, and I still offer them as subjects worthy of the most careful inquiry. In considering the possibility of explaining any of them by instrumental causes, it appeared to me that the only one, for the effects of which there could be any opening, is, fault in the Declination-Magnetometer. By the courtesy of the Committee of the Kew Observatory, I was permitted to compare the Greenwich Declination-Photograms with the Kew Declination-Photograms, and I found them absolutely identical. I therefore abandon the expectation of explaining the conclusions as the effect of instrumental error.

On the 5th conclusion, much light will be thrown by the examination of the phenomena of days of tranquil magnetism.

I now proceed with the discussion of the curves exhibited by the Earth-current Photograms on days of tranquil magnetism. No comparison was made here between the results of the Earth-current Curves and the Magnetometer Curves; my object being merely to examine the laws, as regards diurnal inequality, of the Terrestrial Galvanic Currents, or rather of the Northerly and Westerly Magnetic Forces which those currents might be expected to produce.

It was necessary that the process to be employed should be precisely equivalent to that used on the days of magnetic disturbance; but there was advantage in changing the form. For, where every individual disturbance was to be depicted, it was necessary to measure every individual ordinate by two different scales; here, where the mean of

results for the same nominal hour on numerous days was to be used, it was better to measure the ordinate (whether of the curve or of the zero formed by breaking connexions) by one scale (a scale of inches was in fact used); to take the means of all corresponding to the same hour; and then to multiply the means by the two factors obtained from the theory explained in the former paper. This being done for the two Galvanic Curves, the results were combined in the way explained in the former paper to exhibit the Inferred Northerly Force and the Inferred Westerly Force.

The general multiplier of the geometrical factors used in the former investigation was determined tentatively, to satisfy this condition, that on the whole the magnitudes of the sudden changes of the large ordinates of the curves representing Inferred Northerly Force and Inferred Westerly Force should be sensibly equal to the similar magnitudes in the curves given by the Magnetometers. Considering it as proved that the great disturbances are really produced by the galvanic currents, it is evident that we have thus a fairly accurate scale for converting galvanic indications into magnetic forces (referred, as is done all through, to the total horizontal magnetic force as unit), which will also apply accurately to the days of tranquil magnetism. Also, the zero-indications being formed in the same way for the disturbed and the tranquil days, any error which we may discover in the zeros for tranquil days, or in the references of the ordinates to those zeros, will apply to the zeros or references of disturbed days.

I now proceed with the numerical treatment of the observations of the tranquil days. The readings in inch-measures of the galvanic ordinates for each nominal hour being grouped by months, and, where there were observations in the same months in different years, the different years being combined, the means were taken, and were converted into Magnetic Forces by the following formulæ:—

In the scale of Horizontal-Force Photograms, 0.01 of Horizontal Force is represented by 2.3565 inches (Introduction to Greenwich Magnetical and Meteorological Observations,

1866 and 1867); and for the graduation of "Scale E for Dartford," the value $\frac{1}{e} \times$ graduation

of Horizontal-Force Photogram (Phil. Trans. 1868, p. 470), or $\frac{2\cdot3565 \text{ inches}}{0\cdot68259\times0.5437}$ (p. 469) must be used. This number reduced gives for Scale E for Dartford,

0.01 of Horizontal Force=6.350 inches.

Similarly, for Scale F for Croydon,

0.01 of Horizontal Force=7.768 inches.

For Scale G for Dartford,

0.01 of Horizontal Force=5.471 inches.

For Scale H for Croydon,

0.01 of Horizontal Force=4.901 inches.

With these elements, Tables were prepared for converting inch-measures into measures of Horizontal Force. In the original adaptation to base-lines below the photographic curves, the measures with E and F, both used negatively, were to be added, to form

Northerly Magnetic Tendency; and the measures with G taken positively and H taken negatively were to be added, to form Westerly Magnetic Tendency. In the present operations, in which all measures were taken from the photographic base-lines, which reversed the direction of measure for Croydon, E was to be applied to the complement of actual measure of ordinate to 5 inches, and F, G, H to the actual measures of ordinates. I have entered into these minutiæ with the view of facilitating any future reference to the calculations * preserved in the Royal Observatory.

The reading for the zero of each curve (or the indication when the galvanic communications are broken) is found by taking the mean of a group of such zeros, as far as there appears to be no probability of instrumental change; and these readings are treated in the same way as those for the ordinates of the curves. Subtracting these mean zeros from the mean monthly ordinates at each nominal hour, the first Tables of Hourly indications of the Magnetic Effect of Galvanic Currents are formed. It is important to observe that all the numbers have the positive sign.

It will be remarked that, in a few instances, the register has been defective at one or two hours; in those cases it has been thought best still to use the registered hours, though imperfect in number, in the formation of means. The number of days employed to form the means for different hours is thus somewhat variable, as is indicated by the list at the bottom of the Tables. The "Means for the whole day" will appear again, in a following Table, and will explain an important difficulty.

^{*} In the original calculations, by a mistake, E was applied to the actual measures of ordinates, and F, G, H to the complements of measure to 5 inches. The error was corrected by changing the signs of all the ultimate results.

Тавье І.

Hour. Greenwich Mean Solar Time.	1866 and 1867.	138	1867.	1805 and 1807.	1846 an	1846 and 1867.			1865, 1866	1865, 1866, and 1867.		
	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Styrtember.	October,	November.	December.
•	+0.00046	+0.00056	69000-0+	+ 0.00062	+0-00020	+ 0.00044	+ 0.00053	+0.00063	₹9000·0+	+0.00047	+0.00032	+0.00038
, ,	46	69	7.4	96	51	49	55	65	59	20	40	88
93	**	70	92	56	26	9	57	65	61	19	4.2	39
63	20	73	11	99	174	64	26	63	99	45	44	40
•	20	70	11	90	- 20	2	54	65	22	49	48	40
ıq	9	200	91	30	500	20	29	99	59	iğ.	47	₩
9	74	200	69	55	2	49	99	29	69	47	4	33
	. 5	65	22	25	94	44	26	60	54	64	34	35
. 00	4	99	35	54	36	44	264	52	25	40	35	34
0	200	35	129	35	3.4	45	7	48	45	47	34	35
2	36	34	67	4	34	8	30	45	46	38	98	34
=	20.00	35	. 3	***	24	**	30	47	46	41	98	34
25	30	25	3	35	22	35	30	3,4	46	37	34	34
38	43	55	61	43	37	88	35	848	48	38	33	38
14	44	59	69	45	98	35	37	49	30,4	68	9	41
12	45	19	65	44	37	35	39	46	96	35	2,4	25
16	57	59	64	43	37	35	38	52	54	45	35	4.
17	55	09	99	43	35	33	37	49	21.0	43		*
18	90	28	99	39	34	31	98	43	94	4	40	4 20
19	90	57	61	34	68	98	č.	38	ŝ	36	36	4
08	94	53	57	30	27	23	68	35	35	34	68	38
293	39	48	53	31.	68	88	68	37	35	30	68	34
86.	35	51	59	7	33	30	38	45	44	38	88	35
83	38	53	63	99	45	34	52	57	82.8	45	35	98
Means for the whole day	+0.00044	+ 0.00059	4 0-00067	+0.00046	+ 0.00040	+ 0.00038	+ 0.00043	+0.00052	+ 0.00051	+0.00043	+ 0.00038	+0-00038
			Namb	er of Measur	Number of Measures employed in forming the Means for each Hour.	in forming	the Means fo	r each Hou	÷			
Dartford Line	36 to 40	21 to 23	24 to 28	38 to 45	34 to 41	55 to 58	54 to 58	46 to 51	47 to 50	40 to 49	32 to 38	56 to 58
Creydon Line	35 to 40	20 to 23	26 to 28	39 to 47	49 to 54	53 to 57	53 to 61	44 to 60	45 to 52	43 to 57	53 to 67	58 to 63
	-	-	The second second second	of the transfer over the		The program density comments and in	- Annual Special Section 201	And the part of the part of the last	,			and a disconnection of the last

TABLE II

Greenwich Mean Solar Time.	1806 and 1867.	18	1867.	1865 and 1807.	1866 ал	866 and 1867.	es de descripto e consumero, e procedor os		1865, 1866	1865, 1866, and 1867.		
	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
0	+0.00141	+0.00158	+0.00163	+0.00131	+0.00127	+0-00104	+0.00132	+0.00135	+0.00131	+0.00119	+ 0.00122	+0.00131
_	142	172	164	129	130	111	123	138	128	8	134	133
61	138	166	161	131	139	109	183	132	199	116	133	13
67	141	166	156	118	119	104	112	127	120	103	333	
4	139	160	154	150	125	106	113	129	114	110	130	
70	136	164	155	120	126	103	116	158	117	111	132	136
9	139	165	141	120	152	100	118	123	115	103	197	. 61
7	132	152	153	112	Ξ	93	113	116	66	102	115	03
30	128	139	143	112	104	~6	103	110	94	94	117	9
6	193	133	139	94	93	78	06	66	88	101	11	6
10	153	193	139	95	93	75	75	95	90	91	117	25
=	911	124	145	91	96	79	11	95	96	97	115	18
18	110	125	140	34	35	8	75	80	06	97	115	81
13	131	130	135	93	95	08	08	96.	86	95	123	38
7	133	138	136	16	56	32 20	æ	66	96	97	123	13
15	138	144	140	93	96	**	98	99	97	102	123	13
16	147	140	136	86	96	83	98	104	105	104	156	13
17	147	148	138	94	5	28	30	103	103	105	195	Ē
18	143	=======================================	139	236	16	22	81	86	95	104	124	13
19	141	140	132	79	96	7	79	23	38	97	150	5
8	159	136	981	75	36	7	22	68	250	95	25	13
8	136	136	125	98	95	25	36	93	200	8	113	8
33	126	135	981	97	66	**	96.	107	103	105	116	13
જ	123	2	144	=	611	66	115	123	35	119	120	ᅉ
Means for the whole day	+0.00133	+0-00144	+0.00143	+0-00106	+0.00105	+0.00105 +0.00088	960000-0+	+0.00096 +0.00109	+0-00103	+0-00103	+0.00122	+ 0.00129
eder mentere begrete freighte freighete freigh	to) (desconductions) production of the substitution of the substit	ecros-ameliarens, americo, o "suantita	Numb	er of Measu	re- employed	Number of Measures employed in forming the Means for each Hour.	the Means fe	or each Hou				
Dartford Line	36 to 40	21 to 23	24 to 28	38 to 45	34 to 41	55 to 58	54 to 58	46 to 51	47 to 50	40 to 49	32 to 38	56 to 58
	-	-				-				,		

On constructing curves of each month, with the northerly and westerly tendencies for coordinates, it appeared desirable to eliminate some of the irregularities by a systematic process. The numbers in each ordinate, for any month, being arranged in order, and extended as necessary by repetition of the first terms of the series, the means of adjacent numbers were taken to form a second series; the means of adjacent numbers of the second series to form a third series, and so on. This operation was repeated six times. It will be proper to examine the effect of this process upon periodical terms of different orders.

The inequalities which we seek being essentially periodical with respect to one day, the expression for the inequality at the pth hour may be expressed in the form

$$\begin{cases} +a_1 \cos \operatorname{cosine} \\ +b_1 \sin e \end{cases} p \times 15^{\circ} + \begin{cases} +a_2 \cos \operatorname{ine} \\ +b_2 \sin e \end{cases} 2p \times 15^{\circ} + \begin{cases} +a_3 \cos \operatorname{ine} \\ +b_3 \sin e \end{cases} 3p \times 15^{\circ} + &c. \\ +\begin{cases} +a_n \cos \operatorname{ine} \\ +b_n \sin e \end{cases} np \times 15^{\circ}.$$

Confining our attention to the cosine of the general term; three successive terms in the series for hours, for the p-1 hour, the p hour, and the p+1 hour, will be

$$a_n \operatorname{cosine} \{np \times 15^{\circ} - n \times 15^{\circ}\}\$$

 $a_n \operatorname{cosine} \{np \times 15^{\circ}\}\$
 $a_n \operatorname{cosine} \{np \times 15^{\circ} + n \times 15^{\circ}\}\$

then, taking the means of the adjacent terms, and again taking their means, we arrive by this double operation at the expression

$$a_n$$
. (cosine $\{n \times 7^\circ 30'\}$)²× cosine $\{np \times 15^\circ\}$.

And, repeating the operation six times, we obtain

$$a_n$$
. (cosine $\{n \times 7^\circ 30'\}$)⁶ × cosine $\{np \times 15^\circ\}$.

The argument $np \times 15^{\circ}$ remains unaltered; but the coefficient is diminished, not much for n=1, but very much when n is large, as for instance, =8; which makes

$$(cosine \{n \times 7^{\circ} 30'\})^{6} = \frac{1}{64}$$
.

It appears therefore that the effect of this process is, practically to annihilate the advanced terms of the series, and to diminish the earlier terms in different degrees. And, when we have formed a smoothed series by the process described, and resolve it into terms depending on the arguments $p \times 15^{\circ}$, $2p \times 15^{\circ}$, $3p \times 15^{\circ}$, &c., we must, in order to find the terms of the same kind in the original or unsmoothed series, multiply the terms found by the following factors:

The first, by (secant
$$7^{\circ} 30')^{6}$$
;
The second, by (secant $15^{\circ})^{6}$;
The third, by (secant $22^{\circ} 30')^{6}$;

and so on. And the effects of these ought, if possible, to be introduced into the curves which we may form, using the smoothed terms for ordinates; an introduction, however, which will not in practice be easy.

The two following Tables are formed by smoothing the numbers in Tables I. and II., by the process described above.

TABLE III.

Hour.	T							e, and the				ð.
Greenwich Mean Solar Time.	1866 and 1867.	18	367.	1865 and 1867.	1866 az	d 1867.		18	65, 1866	, and 180	37.	
	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec
0	42	59	68	55	48	42	52	60	58	47	37	37
1	45	65	72	57	51	47	54	63	60	48	39	39
2	48	69	75	57	51	49	55	64	60	49	42	39
3	49	71	76	56	51	50	55	64	59	49	44	40
4	48	71	76	56	51	50	55	64	59	49	45	40
5	47	71	75	56	51	49	56	64	59	49	44	40
6	46	69	73	54	49	47	56	61	58	48	41	38
7	44	64	72	51	45	45	53	57	55	46	37	37
8	41	58	70	47	40	41	47	53	51	45	35	35
9	39	53	68	43	36	37	41	49	48	43	35	35
10	37	50	67	41	34	34	35	47	47	41	35	34
11	35	50	66	41	34	33	32	46	46	39	36	35
12	37	52	65	41	34	34	32	46	47	39	37	36
13	40	55	63	43	35	34	34	47	48	39	38	38
14	44	58	63	44	36	35	36	48	49	40	40	40
15	48	59	64	44	37	35	37	49	50	42	41	41
16	52	59	65	43	36	34	37	49	51	43	41	42
17	53	59	65	41	35	33	37	47	49	42	41	42
18	51	58	63	38	33	30	35	43	45	40	39	42
19	47	56	61	35	31	29	33	40	41	37	35	40
20	43	53	58	33	29	28	32	38	39	35	32	38
21	39	51	57	36	31	29	34	41	40	35	31	36
22	37	52	59	42 ;	36	32	40	47	46	38	33	36
23	38	55	64	49	42	37	47	54	53	43	35	37

TABLE IV.

Magnetic Tendencies to the West, formed by smoothing the numbers of Table II.

The unit is 000001 of Total Horizontal Magnetic Force, and the sign is everywhere positive.

Hour.		me unit	18 0 (0,00)	or rotal	RECOFERENCE	ear mings	etic Fore	e, and the	sign is c	overy wine	to logitty	
Greenwich Mean Solar Time.	1866 and 1867.	1.6	367.	1865 and 1867.	1866 ar	nd 1867.		1	865, 1866	5, and 18	67.	
	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
0	135	156	155	121	123	101	117	129	124	117	125	131
1	.139	163	160	124	127	106	120	133	125	116	129	131
2	140	166	160	123	127	307	119	132	123	113	132	131
3	139	165	157	121	125	106	116	130	120	110	133	132
4	139	163	154	120	124	105	115	128	117	109	132	133
5 6	137	162	151	119	123	102	115	126	114	107	129	132
6	135	158	149	117	119	99	114	121	109	105	125	129
7	132	150	147	113	111	94	109	116	103	101	120	125
8	128	139	144	107	104	. 88	101	109	96	98	116	122
9	125	130	142	100	97	83	91	102	92	97	115	122
10 .	121	125	: 141	95	93	79	82	97	91	96	115	122
11	119	125	141	93	92	79	78	95	91	96	116	123
12	120	127	139	93	93	80	78	94	93	96	118	125
13	126	131	138	94	94	81	80	95	95	97	120	127
14	133	136	137	95	95	82	83	98	97	99	123	129
15	139	140	137	95	95	83	85	100	99	101	124	132
16	143	141	138	94	95	82	85	103	100	103	125	133
17	144	141	137	91	93	80	83	105	99	163	124	135
18	142	140	134	86	91	77	81	102	94	161	122	134
19	138	137	132	81	88	74	80	96	90	99	119	133
20	133	134	130	80	89	75	81	94	92	96	116	130
21	120	133	131	86	94	79	87	99	95	99	115	129

The next step of treatment was, to resolve the series of terms for each month into a diurnal, a semidiurnal, and a tertio-diurnal series. With such numbers as we have here before us, I have found the following process very convenient. I take the numbers for the Westerly Inequality in January as an example.

Arrange the numbers in two columns, 0^h to 11^h and 12^h to 23^h, side by side, take the difference of corresponding numbers for double diurnal, and the sum (when corrected by subtracting its mean) for double semidiurnal. For convenience, the numbers may be left in the double form. Half the mean above-mentioned will be the true mean of the twenty-four hours.

Hours.	Westerly Tendencie	Differences for double diurnal.	Sums for do semidium	
0 12 1 13 2 14 3 15 4 16 5 17 6 18 7 19 8 20 9 21 10 22 11 23	35 20 39 26 40 33 39 39 39 43 37 44 35 42 32 38 28 33 25 29 21 29 19 31	+15 -15 +13 -13 +7 - 7 0 0 -4 + 4 -7 + 7 -7 + 7 -6 + 6 -5 + 5 -4 + 4 -8 + 8 -12 +12 Mean	55 65 73 78 82 81 77 70 61 54 50	Corrected111 +-7 +-12 +-16 +-15 +-1151216

The tertio-diurnal term will contribute no part to the semidiurnal, but it will contribute a part to the diurnal. To find its value, arrange the diurnal terms (which I shall now call 'uncorrected') in three columns of eight hours each; take the means of the corresponding numbers, which will be the tertio-diurnal terms, and apply them negatively to correct the diurnal terms.

Hours.	Uncorrected double diurnal.	Sums.	Means or double tertio-diurnal.	Corrected double diurnal.
0 8 16	+15 - 5 + 4	+14	+5	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
1 9 17	+13 - 4 + 7	+16	+5	
2 10 18	+ 7 - 8 + 7	+ 6	+2	
3 11 19	0 -12 + 6	- 6	-2	
4 12 20	- 4 -15 + 5	-14	-5	
5 13 21	- 7 - 13 + 4	-16	-5	
6 14 22	- 7 - 7 + 8	- 6	-2	
7 15 23	- 6 0 + 12	+ 6	+2	

A quarto-diurnal series would readily be formed from the semidiurnal series by the same process by which we have formed the semidiurnal from the original numbers; and the semidiurnal would be corrected as in the operation for correcting the diurnal. But the numbers would be small, and would scarcely repay the trifling trouble.

The numbers thus found ought to be multiplied by 0.5; and then the diurnal numbers ought to be multiplied by (secant 7° 30'), the semidiurnal numbers by (secant 15°), the tertio-diurnal numbers by (secant 22° 30').

The following Tables exhibit all the results.

TABLE III.

Hour.		ne uniti	a 0-00001	,	Horizon	tal Magne	stic Forc	e, and the	sign is e	verywhen	re positiv	ð.
Mean Selar Time.	1866 and 1867.	18	367.	1865 and 1867.	1866 ar	ad 1867.		18	65, 1866	, and 186	87.	
	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec
0	42	59	68	55	48	42	52	60	58	47	37	37
1	45	65	72	57	51	47	54	63	60	48	39	39
2	48	69	75	57	51	49	55	64	60	49	42	39
3	49	71	76	56	51	50	55	64	59	49	44	40
4	48	71	76	56	51	50	55	64	59	49	45	40
5	47	71	75	56	51	49	56	64	59	49	44	40
6	46	69	73	54	49	47	56	61	58	48	41	38
7	44	64	72	51	45	45	53	57	55	46	37	37
8	41	58	70	47	40	41	47	53	51	45	35	35
9	39	53	68	43	36	37	41	49	48	43	35	35
10	37	50	67	41	34	34	35	47	47	41	35	34
11	35	50	66	41 .	34	33	32	46	46	39	36	35
12	37	52	65	41	34	34	32	46	47	39	37	36
13	40	55	63	43	35	34	34	47	48	39	38	38
14	44	58	63	44	36	35	36	48	49	40	40	40
15	48	59	64	44	37	35	37	49	50	42	41	41
16	52	59	65	43	36	34	37	49	51	43	41	42
17	53	59	65	41	35	33	37	47	49	42	41	42
18	51	58	63	38	33	30	35	43	45	40	39	42
19	47	56	61	35	31	29	33	40	41	37	35	40
20	43	53	58	33	29	28	32	38	39 .	35	32	38
21	39	51	57	36	31	29	34	41	40	35	31	36
22	37	52	59	42	36	32	40	47	46	38	33	36
23	38	55	64	49	42	37	47	54	53	43	35	37

TABLE IV.

Magnetic Tendencies to the West, formed by smoothing the numbers of Table II.

The unit is 0100001 of Total Horizontal Magnetic Force, and the sign is everywhere positive.

Greenwich Mean Solar Time.	1866 and 1867.	15	B 67.	1865 and 1867.	1866 aı	od 1867.		18	565, 186	3, and 18	67.	
	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
0	135	156	155	121	123	101	117	129	124	117	125	131
1	.139	163	160	124	127	106	120	133	125	116	129	131
2 3	140	166	160	123	127	107	119	132	123	113	132	131
3	139	165	157	121	125	106	116	130	120	110	133	132
4	139	163	154	120	124	105	115	128	117	109	132	133
5	137	162	151	119	123	102	115	126	114	107	129	132
	135	158	149	117	119	99	114	121	109	105	125	129
7	132	150	147	113	111	94	109	116	103	101	120	125
8	128	139	144	107	104	88	101	109	96	98	116	122
9 ;	125	130	142	100	97	83	91	102	92	97	115	122
10	121	125	141	95	93	79	82	97	91	96	115	122
11	119	125	141	93	92	79	78	95	91	96	116	123
12	120	127	139	93	93	80	78	94	93	96	118	125
13	126	131	138	94	94	81	80	95	95	97	120	127
14	133	136	137	95	95	82	83	98	97	99	123	129
15	139	140	137	95	95	83	85	100	99	101	124	132
16	143	141	138	94	95	82	85	103	100	103	125	133
17	144	141	137	91	93	80	83	105	99	103	124	135
18	142	140	134	86	91	77	81	102	94	101	122	134
19	138	137	132	81	88	74	80	96	90	99	119	133
20	133	134	130	80	89	75	81	94	92	96	116	130
21	129	133	131	86	94	79	87	99	95	99	115	129
22	129	137	137	97	103	85	98	109	105	105	117	129
23	131	146	147	111	114	94	109	120	117	113	120	129

The next step of treatment was, to resolve the series of terms for each month into a diurnal, a semidiurnal, and a tertio-diurnal series. With such numbers as we have here before us, I have found the following process very convenient. I take the numbers for the Westerly Inequality in January as an example.

Arrange the numbers in two columns, 0^h to 11^h and 12^h to 23^h, side by side, take the difference of corresponding numbers for double diurnal, and the sum (when corrected by subtracting its mean) for double semidiurnal. For convenience, the numbers may be left in the double form. Half the mean above-mentioned will be the true mean of the twenty-four hours.

Hours.	Westerly '	Tendencies.		for double rnal.	Sums for semidit	
0 12 1 13 2 14 3 15 4 16 5 17 6 18 7 19 8 20 9 21 10 22 11 23	35 39 40 39 39 37 35 32 28 25 21	20 26 33 39 43 44 42 38 33 29 29	+15 +13 + 7 0 - 4 - 7 - 7 - 6 - 5 - 4 - 8 - 12	-15 -13 -7 0 +4 +7 +7 +6 +5 +4 +12 Mean	Uncorrected. 55 65 73 78 82 81 77 70 61 54 50 50	Corrected. -11 -1 +7 +12 +16 +15 +11 +4 -5 -12 -16 -16

The tertio-diurnal term will contribute no part to the semidiurnal, but it will contribute a part to the diurnal. To find its value, arrange the diurnal terms (which I shall now call 'uncorrected') in three columns of eight hours each; take the means of the corresponding numbers, which will be the tertio-diurnal terms, and apply them negatively to correct the diurnal terms.

Hours.	Uncorrected double diurnal.	Sums.	Means or double tertio-diurnal.	Corrected double diurnal.
0 8 16	+15 - 5 + 4	+14	+5	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
1 9 17	+13 - 4 + 7	+16	+5	
2 10 18	+ 7 - 8 + 7	+ 6	+2	
3 11 19	0 -12 + 6	- 6	-2	
4 12 20	- 4 -13 + 5	-14	-5	
5 13 21	- 7 - 13 + 4	-16	-5	
6 14 22	- 7 - 7 + 8	- 6	-2	
7 15 23	- 6 0 +12	+ 6	+2	

A quarto-diurnal series would readily be formed from the semidiurnal series by the same process by which we have formed the semidiurnal from the original numbers; and the semidiurnal would be corrected as in the operation for correcting the diurnal. But the numbers would be small, and would scarcely repay the trifling trouble.

The numbers thus found ought to be multiplied by 0.5; and then the diurnal numbers ought to be multiplied by (secant 7° 30'), the semidiurnal numbers by (secant 15°), the tertio-diurnal numbers by (secant 22° 30').

The following Tables exhibit all the results.

Table V.—Diurnal Magnetic Inequality in North Direction, inferred from Galvanic Earth-Currents. The unit is 0 00001 of Total Horizontal Magnetic Force.

Hours.	1866 and 1867. January.	1867. February.	1867. March.	1865 and 1867. April.	1866 and 1867. May.	1866 and 1867. June.	1865 to 1867. July.	1865 to 1867. August.	1865 to 1867. September.	1865 to 1867. October.	1865 to 1867. November.	1865 to 1867. December.
]	Mean of	the Inc	quality	for the	twenty-	four ho	ure.	1		
	+44	+59	+67	+46	+40	+38	+43	+52	+51	+43	+38	+38
1	·	Sin	mple Di	urnal I	equalit	(to be	multipl	ied by ()·526).	,		
0 1 2 3 4 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 20 21 22 23	+ 1 1 + 1 2 2 - 3 4 - 4 4 - 3 3 - 1 1 - 1 2 2 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	+ 70 + 10 + 12 + 12 + 10 + 12 + 10 + 10 - 10 - 12 - 10 - 12 - 12 - 10 - 12 - 12 - 10 - 12 - 12 - 10 - 12 - 12 - 10 - 12 - 12 - 10 - 12 - 12 - 10 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 10 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 14 - 15 - 5 - 5 - 7 - 16 - 17 - 18 - 5 - 5 - 18 - 5 - 18 - 5 - 18 - 5 - 18 - 5 - 18 - 5 - 18 - 5 - 18 - 5 - 18 - 5 - 18 - 5 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18	+ 2 + 6 + 9 + 11 + 12 + 13 + 12 + 11 + 8 + 5 + 1 - 2 - 6 - 9 - 11 - 12 - 13 - 13 - 12 - 13 - 13 - 13 - 13 - 13 - 13 - 13 - 13	+ 9 + 12 + 14 + 16 + 18 + 17 + 15 + 12 + 9 - 12 - 14 - 16 - 18 - 17 - 15 - 12 - 19 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10	+11 +14 +16 +17 +18 +15 +11 + 8 - 1 - 14 -16 -17 -18 -18 -11 - 18 - 11 - 5 - 11 - 5 - 11 - 5 - 11 - 5 - 11 - 14 - 15 - 17 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18	+ 6 +11 +14 +17 +18 +18 +17 +14 +11 +6 -11 -14 -17 -18 -17 -14 -11 -12 +2 +2	+14 +17 +21 +24 +24 +22 +19 +14 + 3 - 9 -14 -24 -24 -24 -29 -14 -9 -4 +3 +9	+ 9 + 14 + 17 + 18 + 20 + 19 + 17 + 14 + 10 + 6 + 1 - 18 - 20 - 19 - 17 - 14 - 10 - 6 - 1 + 5	+ 6 + 9 + 11 + 13 + 13 + 13 + 10 + 7 + 5 + 1 - 6 - 9 - 11 - 13 - 13 - 13 - 13 - 13 - 13 - 13	+ 46 + 48 + 100 + 176 + 100 + 100 + 100 + 100 + 100 -	0 0 + 1 + 2 + 4 + 4 + 4 + 4 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 1 0 0 0 1 - 2 - 4 - 3 - 3 - 3 - 3 - 1 0	+ 1 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 2 - 3 - 2 - 1 + 1 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 2 + 2
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Se	midiur	al Ineq	uality (to be m	ultiplied	by 0.6	16).			
0 12 1 13 2 14 3 15 4 16 5 17 6 18 7 19 8 20 9 21 10 22 11 23	- 9 - 3 + 4 + 9 + 12 + 12 + 9 + 3 - 4 - 10 - 14 - 15	- 7 + 2 + 9 + 12 + 12 + 12 + 12 + 2 - 7 - 14 - 16 - 13	- 1 + 4 + 6 + 7 + 6 + 2 - 6 - 9 - 8 - 4	+ 4 + 8 + 9 + 8 + 7 + 5 - 6 - 12 - 13 - 9 - 2	+ 2 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 7 + 6 + 2 - 11 - 13 - 10 - 4	0 + 5 + 8 + 9 + 8 + 6 + 1 - 2 - 7 - 10 - 10 - 6	- 1 + 3 + 6 + 7 + 7 + 8 + 1 - 10 - 10 - 6	+ 3 + 7 + 9 + 10 + 10 + 8 + 1 - 6 - 12 - 13 - 9 - 3	+ 3 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 6 + 1 - 12 - 14 - 9 - 3	0 + 3 + 5 + 6 + 5 + 2 - 6 8 - 7 - 4	+ 2 + 1 + 6 + 9 + 2 + 3 + 4 - 9 - 10 - 8 - 5	- 3 + 3 + 5 + 6 + 4 + 1 - 5 - 6 - 4
		Te	rtio-diu	rnal Ine	quality	(to be i	nultipli	ed by O	804).			
0 8 16 1 9 17 2 10 18 3 11 19 4 12 20 5 13 21 6 14 22 7 15 23	+ 2 + 4 + 3 0 - 2 - 4 - 3 0	0 0 - 1 0 0 + 1	+ 1 + 3 + 3 + 1 - 1 - 3 - 3 - 1	+ 5 + 2 - 1 - 4 - 5 - 2 + 1 + 4	+ 3 + 2 - 1 - 3 - 3 - 2 + 1 + 3	+ 2 + 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 + 2	+ 6 + 3 - 6 - 3 + 6	+ 5 + 2 - 1 - 3 - 5 - 2 + 1 + 3	+ 5 + 3 0 - 4 - 5 - 3 0 + 4	+ 4 + 3 + 1 - 2 - 4 - 3 - 1 + 2	0 + 1 + 1 + 1 - 0 - 1 - 1	0 + 1 0 0 0 - 1

TABLE VI.—Diurnal Magnetic Inequality in West Direction, inferred from Galvanic Earth-Currents. The unit is 0.00001 of Total Horizontal Magnetic Force.

Hours.	1866 and 1867. January.	1867. February.	1867. March.	1865 and 1867. April.	1866 and 1867. May.	1886 and 1867. June.	1865 to 1867. July.	1865 to 1867. August.	1865 to 1867. September.	1865 to 1867. October.	1865 to 1867. November.	1865 to 1867. December.
		3	Mean of	the Inc	equality	for the	twenty	-four ho	urs.			
	+133	+144	+143	+103	+105	+88	+96	+110	+103	+103	+122	+129
		Sin	nple Dic	ırnal İn	equality	(to be	multipli	ied by 0	•526).			
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23	+10 +8 +5 +2 -5 -10 -10 -10 -10 -10 -10 +2 +5 +10 +9 +10 +10	$\begin{array}{c c} -6 \\ -12 \\ -18 \\ -25 \\ -29 \\ -30 \\ -28 \\ -26 \\ -21 \\ -10 \\ -1 \\ +6 \\ +12 \end{array}$	+ 9 + 5 0 - 6 - 11 - 16 - 19 - 20 - 21 - 20 - 19 - 19 - 19 - 19 - 19 - 19 - 19 - 19	+18 +25 +30 +34 +36 +33 +24 +17 +9 -10 -18 -30 -31 -36 -33 -29 -21 -17 -9 0 +10	+25 +31 +34 +35 +34 +36 +18 +10 + 1 - 17 -25 -31 -34 -32 -26 -18 -10 -1 + 8 +17	+17 +23 +26 +27 +24 +21 +16 +9 +25 -11 -123 -26 -27 -27 -24 -21 +5 +11	+29 +36 +40 +41 +40 +36 +29 +10 -12 -21 -20 -36 -40 -31 -40 -31 -40 +12 +12 +12 +12 +13 +14 +14 +15 +16 +17 +17 +17 +17 +17 +17 +17 +17 +17 +17	, ,	+25 +26 +27 +23 +19 +14 -7 -13 -20 -25 -27 -23 -19 -14 +7 -23 -25 -27 -23 -19 -14 +7 -23 -19 -14 -17 -23 -19 -19 -19 -19 -19 -19 -19 -19 -19 -19	+15 +14 +12 +12 + 8 + 4 - 1 - 6 - 9 -14 - 15 - 14 - 12 - 18 - 4 + 4 + 4 + 4 + 4 + 9 + 14	+ 7 + 8 + 8 + 8 + 6 + 4 + 2 0 1 - 1 3 5 7 8 8 8 7 6 6 4 2 0 1 - 1 2 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1	+7 +4 +2 -1 -3 -7 -7 -7 -7 -7 -7 -7 -4 +1 +3 +7 +7 +7 +7
		Se	midiur	nal Ineq	uality (to be m	ultiplied	1 by 0•6	16).			
0 12 1 13 2 14 3 15 4 16 5 17 6 18 7 19 8 20 9 21 10 22 11 23	-11 -1 +7 +12 +16 +15 +11 + 4 - 5 -12 -16	- 4 + 7 + 15 + 18 + 17 + 16 + 11 - 0 - 14 - 24 - 25 - 16	+ 7 +11 +10 + 7 + 5 + 1 - 4 -13 -14 - 9 + 1	+ 9 + 13 + 11 + 9 + 5 - 2 - 21 - 18 - 19 - 13 - 1	+ 7 +12 +13 +11 +10 + 7 + 1 -16 -16 -18 -13 - 3	+ 4 +10 +12 +12 +10 + 5 - 1 - 9 -14 -15 -13 - 4	+ 3 + 8 + 10 + 9 + 8 + 6 + 3 - 10 - 14 - 12 - 5	+11 +12 +12 + 4 - 7 -16 -18	+10 +13 +13 +12 +10 +6 -4 -14 -19 -20 -11 +1	+ 7 + 7 + 6 + 5 + 6 + 4 - 18 - 10 - 5 + 3	- 1 + 5 + 11 + 13 + 13 + 9 + 3 - 12 - 14 - 12 - 8	-2 0 +2 +6 +8 +9 +5 0 -6 -7 -7 -6
		Т	rtio-diu	rnal Inc	equality	(to be i	multipli	ed by 0	804).		_	
0 8 16 1 9 17 2 10 18 3 11 19 4 12 20 5 13 21 6 14 22 7 15 23	+ 5 5 2 2 5 5 2 2 + 2 2 5 5 2 2 2 1 + 2 2 5 5 5 2 2 2 1 + 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	+ 4 + 3 0 - 3 - 4 - 3 0 + 3	+ 5 + 6 + 4 0 - 5 - 6 - 4	+10 + 5 - 2 - 8 -10 - 5 + 2 + 8	+ 5 2 2 4 5 - 5 2 2 4 5	+ 4 + 2 - 1 - 4 - 2 + 1 + 4	+10 + 4 - 4 -10 -10 - 4 + 4 +10	+ 8 + 7 + 1 - 5 - 8 - 7 - 1 + 5	+ 6 + 4 - 1 - 6 - 6 - 4 + 1 + 6	+ 6 + 4 0 - 3 - 6 - 4 0 + 3	0 + 1 + 1 + 1 - 1 - 1	-1 0 0 +1 +1 0 0

It must be observed that the investigations of any one month are totally unconnected with the investigations of every other month. Bearing this in mind, and remarking the strong similarity in the laws of the numbers (under each division of the Table) in proceeding from month to month, with change in the magnitude of the numbers and small change in the epochs of the argument evidently depending on the season, it is impossible to doubt that these numbers are real, the true representation of a galvanic and consequent magnetic action, with remarkable diurnal variation, in the surface-materials of the earth.

In every month there is a constant term of considerable magnitude (in reference to the scale of forces before us) towards the North. Of the origin of this term we can give no certain account; but it may not improbably arise from the different oxidabilities of the terminal plates. The variations of magnitude probably depend on the changes which were made from time to time in the earth-connexions. In any case, there is no reason to doubt that the same term exists in the exhibition of forces on days of great disturbance. And, referring to the tabular values of these constant terms, and to the apparent increase of northern force in the disturbed days as measured by the scales at the sides of their diagrams, it will be seen that the magnitude of these constant terms fully explains the apparent increase in northerly force which was remarked in the discussion of the magnetic effects of earth-currents on the days of great disturbance. The last of the apparent anomalies, which exhibited itself in that discussion, is therefore entirely removed.

In every month there is a constant term of still greater magnitude towards the west. And, on referring to the diagrams applying to the days of great disturbance, it will be seen that there is in them a greater increase of force to the west, well corresponding in magnitude to that larger constant term.

The peculiarities of the law of diurnal inequality will be well seen in the diagrams attached to this paper. The general type of the curve is a double lobe, somewhat modified in one or two months, but always preserving the duplicity. It must be remembered that these curves, which are formed by use of the smoothed numbers, are slightly inaccurate in regard to the more rapid inequalities.

Neither in magnitude nor in law are these inequalities, consequent on the galvanic currents, competent to explain the ordinary diurnal inequalities of magnetism.

The discussion of the galvanic currents on the Croydon and Dartford Lines may now, perhaps, be considered as exhausted.

XII. On Fluoride of Silver. By George Gore, F.R.S.

Received October 5, 1869,-Read January 13, 1870.

Formation*.

ANHYDROUS or gaseous hydrofluoric acid had no visible action on metallic silver; by electrolysis of the aqueous acid with a silver anode, the metal was dissolved and argentic fluoride formed; by electrolysis of anhydrous hydrofluoric acid also, a silver anode was rapidly corroded. Metallic silver in contact with platinum, in a mixture of dilute hydrofluoric acid and aqueous nitrate of potassium, was not corroded even with the aid of heat. A solution of nitrate of silver, mixed with dilute hydrofluoric acid, did not yield fluoride of silver on evaporation to dryness; nor did it show any signs of decomposition on the addition of solutions of any of the soluble fluorides, except stannous fluoride, or a saturated solution of fluoride of potassium. The effects of anhydrous hydrofluoric acid upon oxide, peroxide, nitrate, chloride, iodide, and carbonate of silver have been already briefly described (Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc. 1869, pages 191 and 192).

Preparation.

I prepared the salt as follows:—A solution of pure nitrate of silver was precipitated by pure carbonate of sodium, and the well-washed carbonate dissolved in dilute hydrofluoric acid; a little heat was absorbed. The clear liquid was heated to boiling, filtered, evaporated, and heated to incipient fusion; transferred whilst hot to a bottle of platinum, and when partly cool retransferred to a gutta-percha bottle.

The earthy-brown salt thus prepared contains a small amount of free silver (especially if it has been stirred when nearly dry), some water, and traces of hydrofluoric acid. To remove the water and acid, I have sometimes heated it in a platinum cup covered with layers of filtering-paper kept cold by a vessel of water placed upon them. When nearly dry it had a greenish metallic lustre, due to the free silver; and when made perfectly anhydrous, by heating nearly to its point of softening, it was black, with a grey satin metallic lustre.

Analysis.

To determine the amount of silver, I passed hydrogen, steam, or ammonia over the gently fused salt, or I precipitated the aqueous solution by hydrochloric acid. To find the amount of fluorine, I precipitated the solution by nitrate of lime; I also employed the following process, and found it much more accurate and satisfactory. About 50 or 100 grains of the salt was weighed in a narrow closed cup of platinum, the cup then

 All the operations upon fluorine compounds described in this paper were conducted in platinum vessels, unless otherwise stated.

placed in a platinum tube-retort about 150 millims. long, and the salt heated to fusion to expel all moisture; the retort was then closed by a tube containing fragments of chloride of calcium and cooled. The cup was removed, instantly closed, and reweighed. The salt was then dissolved in hot water, the solution filtered in the dark into a twoounce platinum bottle, the washed filter burned, and the residuary silver weighed. well-washed cup was also heated to faint redness, and its gain of weight of silver ascertained. By deducting these weights from that of the fused fluoride, nearly the true weight of soluble fluoride was found. For every single grain of soluble fluoride, there was now added to the contents of the bottle '22047 grain of perfectly pure caustic lime in powder (prepared as described, Phil, Trans. Roy. Soc. 1869, p. 179), which had just been heated nearly to whiteness until it ceased to lose weight. The bottle was now placed in a large platinum dish, with a small inverted platinum funnel supported above its mouth, and the mixture continuously evaporated to perfect dryness, the products of combustion from the gas-flame being deflected on one side (see page 232). The bottle was then heated to incipient redness until it ceased to lose weight. This method is capable of yielding very accurate results when sufficient care is exercised.

The reaction upon which this method is based is represented by the following equation:—

$$2Ag F + Ca O = Ca F_2 + 2Ag + O.$$

Two molecules, or 254 parts, of the silver salt, and one molecule, or 56 parts, of caustic lime lose 16 parts of oxygen, and leave a mixture of 78 parts of fluoride of calcium and 216 parts of metallic silver. The 16 parts of oxygen lost by the above weights of materials equal 38 parts of fluorine present; a greater proportion of loss would occur if the silver salt contained less fluorine and an equal weight of oxygen or water was present to supply the deficiency, because the lime prevents the expulsion of the fluorine by heat, but not that of any oxygen or water.

The following are the particulars of an analysis of this kind:—100.92 grains of the brown fluoride was fused in the cup and retort; it effervesced, and a little silver was set free upon the surface of the cup; the loss of weight was 1.08 grain =1.070 per cent., consisting of acid watery vapour, and some oxygen produced by the action of that vapour upon the heated salt. On dissolving the salt and filtering, 2.80 grains of silver was found upon the filter, and .13 grain upon the cup. The quantity of salt dissolved therefore was 96.91 grains =21.366 grains of CaO; 21.39 grains of the lime was then added, and the mixture evaporated and ignited; the process occupied about nine hours. The residue was perfectly neutral to test-paper, and weighed 112.20 grains = a loss of 6.10 grains, theory requiring 6.104 grains.

The contents of the bottle was now dissolved by warm dilute nitric acid, the solution filtered and precipitated; 108.545 grains of argentic chloride, = 81.692 grains of silver, was obtained, theory requiring 82.411 grains*.

To determine the amount of silver more accurately I made the following experiment:-

* Platinum vessels heated to low redness in contact with finely divided silver from fused argentic fluoride show an increase of weight even after having been cleaned by nitric acid (see page 229).—Added April 1870, G. G.

55.44 grains of the brown fluoride was put into a platinum boat and heated to fusion in the retort-tube; it lost 91 grain =1.641 per cent. The boat and contents was then put into a tube of platinum 114 millims. long, in the middle part of another platinum tube 508 millims. long, and heated to low redness during 55 minutes in a slow current of gaseous ammonia previously dried by caustic lime. A very bulky white and deliquescent sublimate of fluoride of ammonium, having the appearance of down, was produced, and the silver salt crept over the edge of the boat at the exit end. The heat was continued some time after the sublimation ceased, and the boat was cooled in the current of gas. The whole of the salt was reduced to metal, and the amount of silver found was 46.09 grains. A small amount, 305 grain, had been carried forward into the long tube during the process, thus making a total of 46.395 grains, theory requiring 46.610 grains, viz. 1.599 grains * of free silver, and 45.011 grains of combined silver, in the salt after fusion. After thoroughly digesting the boat in warm dilute nitric acid and washing, it was jet-black (whilst wet) in those parts which had been in contact with the fused salt, and when dry those parts were grey and rough with finely divided platinum (see page 234); the boat had also increased 1:14 grain in weight, probably by absorption of metallic silver: igniting the boat did not alter this weight. The short tube enclosing the boat had, after similar cleaning, lost 05 grain in weight. The reaction which occurred in this case was probably in accordance with the following equation:-

$$4H_3 N + 3AgF = 3(H_4 NF) + 3Ag + N;$$

the twelve atoms of hydrogen lose one atom of trivalent nitrogen and gain three atoms of monovalent fluorine by substitution.

To ascertain the amount of free silver in a specimen of the brown fluoride, 43.04 grains of the salt was dissolved in cold water, and the solution filtered in the dark; a little grey powder of silver separated. The residue was well washed, ignited, and weighed; 575 grain of silver was found after deducting the weight of filter ash.

The foregoing results show that 100 grains by weight of the brown fluoride contained 1.336 grain of silver, .795 grain of aqueous hydrofluoric acid, and 97.869 grains of pure fluoride. By fusing this quantity (i.e. 100 grains) of the brown salt in a nearly closed platinum vessel it loses 1.070 grain†, consisting of water and hydrofluoric acid. The fused residue contained 2.903 grains of free silver, of which 1.336 grain was in the salt when first taken, and 1.567 grain was set free during the fusion; it also contained 96.027 grains of pure fluoride of silver.

AgF 97. Free silver about 1:	-	Fused salt. 96.027 or Silver 2.903 ,, Fluorine	${82.544 \atop 14.522}$ = 97.066 AgF.
Aqueous H F	795	98-930 Free silver about	2.934
100-	000 Loss by fusion .	. 1.070	100.000
		100.000	

This number is necessarily variable owing to the salt suffering different amounts of decomposition in the process of drying.

[†] This number is also variable.

All these numbers, especially those representing the amounts of free silver and of water, are slightly variable, owing to the extreme deliquescence of the salt and its easy decomposability by heated aqueous vapour*.

According to M. Prat (Comptes Rendus, No. 9, August 26th, 1867), ordinary fluoride of silver in the anhydrous state is composed of oxygen, fluorine, and silver, its composition being represented by the formula AgF, AgO; and true fluoride of silver, prepared by him in a different way, and possessing very different properties from the ordinary fluoride, has the following composition,—

Silver, 1 equiv. or .		108.0	0.785
Fluorine, 1 equiv. or		29.6	0.215
AgF		137.6	1.000

He considers the equivalent or atomic weight of fluorine to be 29.6; and he represents the composition of fluor-spar as follows:—

Calcium, 2 equivs. or			40.0
Flüorine, 1 equiv. or			29.6
Oxygen, 1 equiv. or			8.0
			77.6

The results obtained by me in the foregoing analytical experiments, as well as those obtained in determining the molecular volume of anhydrous hydrofluoric acid in the gaseous state (Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc. 1869, pages 179–183), do not agree with the view that ordinary fluoride of silver in the anhydrous state, prepared in the way I have described, contains oxygen.

Physical Properties.

The salt is a troublesome one to prepare, vessels of silver or platinum are essential for the evaporation of its solution. The solution must be heated and filtered before evaporating. When its solution was nearly concentrated by evaporation skin-like films formed upon its surface, and the liquid beneath was filled with very minute silky fibres, probably crystals of the salt. When heated nearly to dryness it became a tenacious sticky mass, requiring a rigid and sharp-edged spatula to remove it. The dried salt was in brown earthy fragments, which rapidly attracted moisture and deliquesced. In a fused state it formed a highly lustrous, mobile, and jet-black liquid, which on cooling became hard and tough. On dissolving the cooled salt in hot water, filtering, and evaporating the clear solution by heat, some jet-black crystalline powder separated. On several occasions a clear solution of the pure salt, containing free hydrofluoric acid, became blackish with separation of a little black powder on heating.

The salt is very soluble, and evolves a small amount of heat whilst dissolving in the minimum amount of water. 103.58 grains of its aqueous solution (saturated at 15°.5 C.),

^{* (}Added April 1870.)—I have since made numerous analyses and quantitative experiments relating to fluoride of silver, and they have all confirmed the above composition of the salt.—G. G.

[†] In a state of fusion it corrodes silver. See page 233.

placed in a platinum cup 51 millims deep and 16 millims wide, and evaporated to dryness and heated to gentle fusion, left 66·16 grains of solid residue. After allowing '34 grain for the fluorine set free during the fusion, the result shows that 66·5 parts of it dissolved in 37·08 parts of water, or 1 part of water dissolves about 1·79 part of the salt at 15°·5 C., or 1 part of the salt is soluble in ·55 part of water at that temperature. The aqueous solution is strongly alkaline to litmus-paper. On adding distilled water to a hot saturated solution, a white cloud appeared which afterwards dissolved; it probably consisted of a basic salt. On several occasions I have had reason to suspect a slight degree of solubility of finely divided metallic silver in a strong solution of the salt, similar to that of lead and silver in strong aqueous solutions of their respective nitrates. The salt is nearly insoluble in anhydrous alcohol.

By weighing a known amount of the brown salt in a specific-gravity bottle filled up with tetrachloride of carbon, the specific gravity of it was found to be =5.852 at $15^{\circ}.5$ C.

The saturated solution of it at 15°5 C. was very heavy, its specific gravity being =2.61. I have not obtained crystals from it at that temperature*, but by placing it in a covered platinum cup in a freezing-mixture at -23°5 C. it solidified to a mass of needle-shaped crystals, radiating towards the centre of the cup, and finally to a solid mass of colourless salt with deep fissures in its surface produced by contraction. In another similar experiment the solution became a mass of crystalline plates at $-2^{\circ}.25$ C., very similar to those of the acid fluoride of potassium. During the formation of these crystals a yellowish-brown sediment formed at the bottom of the vessel, and on dissolving the crystals by means of gentle heat the sediment remained. The crust was now broken to pieces, and a little cold water added; this caused it to cohere to a rather hard mass, which soon dissolved to a colourless liquid, leaving only a few blackish particles. There was no impurity present, and the probable explanation of the formation of the crust is that there was not sufficient water in the original solution to form the crystalline hydrate, and when the hydrate crystallized it withdrew the water from the remaining portion of salt, and left it in the anhydrous state as a heavy powder which sank to the bottom. This result is remarkable if we consider the great degree of attraction for water which the anhydrous salt possesses, and shows that its tendency to form a crystalline hydrate is even more powerful. I have not experimentally determined the composition of the crystals, but from several circumstances I consider them likely to prove pentahydrated. A saturated solution of the salt chilled to -18°C. exhibited the phenomenon of supersaturation on immersing a platinum wire in it. Melted fluoride of silver which had been gradually cooled was covered with crystalline markings.

A fragment of the brown salt in a well-stoppered colourless glass bottle, exposed to daylight and sunlight during ten weeks, showed no signs of decomposition. A saturated solution of the salt in a platinum cup in a similar bottle similarly exposed during fourteen days evolved traces of hydrofluoric acid, but liberated no silver.

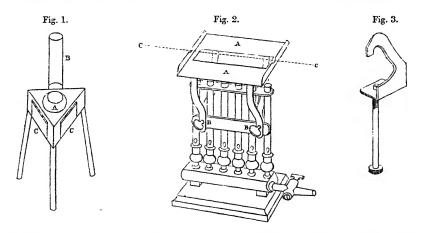
^{*} According to Fremy, 'Chemist,' New Series, vol. i. pp. 556 & 557; Comptes Rendus, February 27, 1854, a concentrated solution of the salt yields very regular crystals.

Fluoride of silver in a platinum crucible within a heated cast-iron muffle with a bar of zinc near the crucible, melted at a temperature much below redness, and at exactly the same time as the zinc; its fusion-point therefore is about 434°C.

50 grains of the salt was melted in a platinum crucible; 20 grains of scraps of platinum was now added, and the lower end of the retort (enclosed within a glass test-tube) heated in a bath of melted zinc during half an hour to a temperature varying both above and below its fusion-point, the exit-tube of the retort being connected with a glass receiver over mercury. Only a trace of gas was evolved, and the retort and its contents lost only '05 grain in weight. The salt therefore is not decomposed by heat alone at the temperature of melting zinc. According to Fremy also (Chemist, New Series, vol. i. pp. 556 & 557) the anhydrous salt is undecomposable by heat.

In some cases of evaporation of fluorides I have used the following arrangement to prevent the products of combustion from the gas-flame coming into contact with the substances. It consists of a triangular sheet-iron cap, fig. 1, without a bottom, fitting over the top of a common iron tripod. In the upper surface of the cap is a large hole A, to receive the evaporating dish. The cap has a short chimney, B, and two flaps of sheet iron, C, C, with hinges to admit of a gas-burner being placed beneath.

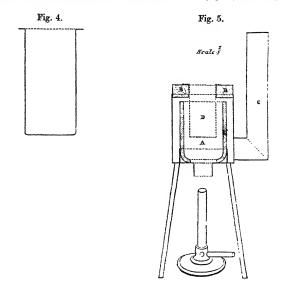
In other experiments in which tubes were heated to redness, I have employed a row of Bunsen's burners (fig. 2), with a moveable table A A of sheet iron fixed to them at any desired height by the screws B, B. The table was for the purpose of supporting the tube, which lay in two notches in its edges in the direction CC; it was also used for



supporting notched plates of fireclay to increase the heat. To fix the tube securely to the table, two peculiar hooked-shaped pieces of iron, provided with screws, were employed, as shown in fig. 3.

In numerous experiments requiring the fusion of fluorides &c., I have employed a

thin platinum cup or muffle (fig. 4), made without solder, heated by means of a furnace (fig. 5), in which the substances could be raised to a high temperature without exposing them to contact with the products of combustion. A (fig. 5) is an open clay cylinder,



BB is a perforated clay plate to receive the cup D. With the aid of this arrangement and a corrugated gas-burner, I have been able to electrolyze substances at the temperature of melted cast iron, and observe the phenomena taking place at the electrodes, and by means of additional arrangements have also collected the gases evolved at those temperatures without admission of air.

On cooling melted fluoride of silver in an open platinum vessel, it effervesced on every occasion whilst solidifying; and on remelting it out of contact with the gases of the burner, more gas was evolved as soon as it acquired a dull red heat. 100 grains of the brown salt, alternately heated to redness and cooled nearly to solidifying, thus, repeatedly during thirty-five minutes, lost 3.86 grains in weight; and the residue, on solution in water, left 17.04 grains of silver, chiefly as a fine powder. A second 100 grains, kept at a dull red heat in an open crucible within the covered muffle during forty-five minutes, lost 2.47 grains, and yielded 12.22 grains of free silver. In a third experiment, 50 grains kept at just visible redness in a closely covered crucible in the closely covered muffle during $1\frac{1}{2}$ hour, lost only .62 grain, and yielded 3.18 grains of free silver. In a fourth similar experiment, in which the silver-salt was partially exposed to the air during one hour, the quantity of silver set free was equivalent to about five-sixths of the total amount of fluorine present. The losses in all these experiments were due, 1st, to the

watery vapour expelled from the brown salt itself, and 2nd, to that of the outer air; the more the air was excluded the less was the percentage of loss. In each experiment some of the silver was set free in a coherent deposited state upon the crucible, chiefly at the junction with the surface of the liquid, and the crucible was slightly corroded. On dissolving this silver by nitric acid, jet-black powder of platinum appeared beneath; this always occurs in such cases.

A current of dried air was passed over 20 grains of argentic fluoride at a gentle red heat in a platinum boat within a glass tube during half an hour; the fluoride was not decomposed. A current of undried air was also similarly passed over the salt in a state of fusion; a little silver was set free at the ingoing end of the boat, and where the salt was not kept perfectly fused effervescence occurred, which caused the salt to creep up the sides of the boat.

Electrolysis.

A number of experiments were made of electrolyzing argentic fluoride in a fused state, with platinum electrodes and six SMEE's elements, in a covered platinum cup. In each case conduction commenced before the salt had fused. When the salt was liquid the conduction was perfect, so that on closing the circuit by a copper wire no additional action could be detected in the battery. No gas was evolved at the cathode, and only a little from the anode, most on each occasion at the first moment of conduction. The anode exhibited no more signs of corrosion than the cathode, nor than what always occurs when argentic fluoride is fused in contact with platinum. Metallic silver was set free in each case, but apparently only by the usual influence of moisture of the air. No film of coherent silver was deposited upon the cathode. I have met with similar results of perfect conduction without manifest electrolysis whilst passing electric currents through certain other metallic fluorides in a state of fusion.

In one of these experiments, supposing that fine fibres of silver might have stretched across and united the electrodes, as actually does occur in some cases, I frequently stirred the liquid around the anode by means of a platinum wire, but no alteration of conduction was thereby produced, and no fibres of silver could be seen. Had such fibres been formed they would probably have been highly heated by the electric current and rendered visible.

On electrolyzing the fused salt with an anode composed of a rod of highly ignited charcoal of lignum-vitæ and ten Smee's elements, only a small amount of conduction took place in consequence of the resistance offered by the charcoal. Gas was evolved from the anode, and the anode was corroded, but no special odour besides that of hydrofluoric acid was perceived. According to Fremy (Chemist, New Series, vol. ii. p. 548; Comptes Rendus, April 25, 1855), who electrolyzed the fused salt in a platinum vessel, it decomposed easily, but the liberated silver perforated the platinum vessel in a few minutes.

A special investigation is necessary to determine the amount of conduction which occurs without electrolysis in this and certain other fluorides in a state of fusion.

Various aqueous solutions of the salt were also electrolyzed. In two of these experiments a saturated solution, not containing free acid, in a platinum dish as the cathode, and a slightly immersed thick platinum wire as the anode, was electrolyzed by means of six large Grove's cells. Free conduction occurred. No gas or odour was evolved. A thick, hard, and strongly adherent crust quickly formed upon the anode, and a rapid deposit of loose brilliant yellow scales of silver upon the cathode. The crystals soon extended upwards and united the electrodes. By still less immersion of the anode sufficient heat was evolved to boil the liquid and set free metallic silver. In another experiment with a large platinum anode suspended inside an inverted funnel of gutta percha to collect evolved gas, no gas was evolved and a similar crust was formed. The black crust, after washing with water, effervesced with ozone-like odour in strong nitric acid, and formed a deep brown opake solution. With strong hydrochloric acid it effervesced and evolved an odour like that of an oxide of chlorine. In concentrated sulphuric acid it evolved gas and an odour of ozone. It also evolved gas in strong aqueous ammonia. Probably, therefore, it was a peroxide of silver, such as occurs in the electrolysis of a solution of argentic nitrate. 13.2 grains of it (which had been kept a long time in a glass bottle with but little corrosive effect upon the glass, and contained scales of free silver) was heated gradually to redness in a narrow platinum tube-retort; much acid fume was evolved at first, and then a gas which repeatedly reinflamed a red-hot charcoal splint explosively. The loss of weight was 1.9 grain. If the substance was peroxide of silver, Ag₂O₂, the loss should have been 1.7 grain. Metallic silver was left. By the electrolysis of a more dilute solution a similar crust was formed, but gas was also evolved at the anode.

Anhydrous hydrofluoric acid, artificially chilled, was electrolyzed by means of ten Smee's elements with a silver anode. The acid conducted more freely than with an anode of palladium, and still more so than with one of gold (see Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc. 1869, p. 189). The anode corroded rapidly, and became covered, first with a little black powder upon its edges, and then with a grey powder (probably metallic silver) which contained only a trace of soluble silver-salt.

The following is the order of electrical relation of several metals in the fused salt at a barely visible red heat, the most positive being named first:—silver, platinum, charcoal of lignum-vitæ, palladium, gold. The silver was rapidly corroded and apparently dissolved. The charcoal emitted much gas when first immersed. Silicon could not be tried because it decomposes the salt rapidly, setting free silver; it is not, however, necessarily electro-positive to silver on that account, for I have met with substances which are electro-negative to silver in argentic solutions from which they liberate silver rapidly. For a similar reason the base metals could not be tried.

Magnesium was rather strongly electro-positive, and silver, palladium, and a rod of charcoal of lignum-vitæ weakly positive to platinum in a saturated solution of the salt at 16° C.

The following is the order of electrical relation found with a moderately dilute solu-

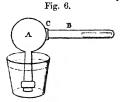
tion of the salt at ordinary temperature:—aluminium, magnesium, silicon, iridium, rhodium, and carbon of lignum-vitæ nearly equal, platinum, palladium, tellurium*, gold. The iridium was much more strongly positive if it was covered with a film of oxide.

Chemical Behaviour.

In many of the experiments great corrosion and injury of the vessels was caused by reduced silver alloying with the platinum; and the products of the reactions were very difficult and tedious to remove. The solvents employed for cleaning the vessels were usually dilute nitric or hydrochloric acids, strong aqueous ammonia, or saturated solutions of iodide of potassium or nitrate of mercury. In some cases the residue of silversalt had to be reduced to metal at a red heat by means of hydrogen or alkaline carbonates.

With Hydrogen.—The reduction of the salt by hydrogen has been already described (Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc. 1869, p. 183). Fragments of the brown salt in hydrogen in a colourless glass vessel at 60° Fahr., exposed to sunlight during two days, exhibited no chemical change. A solution of the salt in a platinum vessel at 60° Fahr., containing a little free hydrofluoric acid, was not decomposed by passing a stream of hydrogen through it.

With Nitrogen.—A globe of glass of the form A, fig. 6, was filled with pure nitrogen; the platinum retort B enclosing a platinum boat, containing a weighed amount of the previously fused salt, was now fixed on air-tight by means of a washer of vulcanized india-rubber at C, and its outer end heated to redness during half an hour, the mouth of the vessel being closed air-tight by a bung of vulcanized india-rubber, and immersing it in a basin of mercury. On opening the mouth of the cooled vessel



under mercury, no alteration of volume of the gas was found, and the loss of weight of the boat and its contents was only 26 grain. The residual gas was found by proper tests to be nitrogen. Nitrogen, therefore, is not absorbed by, and does not decompose, argentic fluoride at a low red heat.

With Ammonia.—A fragment of the brown salt, weighing $10\frac{1}{2}$ grains, was fixed in an iron clip and introduced into a colourless 4-ounce bottle filled with dry ammonia gas over mercury, a stick of caustic potash having been previously placed in the gas; the bottle was then exposed to sunlight. In a few minutes the salt became darker in colour, and a slow absorption of the gas continued during about twenty-six days; a slight odour of ammonia then remained, and the salt had absorbed about 98·3 cub. centims. or 1·0914 grain, or about 844 times its volume of the gas. Light was not necessary, as the absorption was observed to occur during the night. The ammoniated salt was odourless, and was probably analogous to the corresponding compound of argentic chloride and

- * The tellurium contained traces of copper.
- + The most convenient plan I have employed for recovering noble metals from the acid liquids used in cleaning the pieces of apparatus, has been to immerse a plate of zinc in them in a vessel of ebonite.

ammonia. The behaviour of argentic fluoride in a state of fusion in a current of dry gaseous ammonia has been already described (see p. 229). A saturated aqueous solution of argentic fluoride was instantly decomposed with powerful action by the strongest aqueous ammonia, but no precipitate was observed.

With Oxygen.—24.6 grains of oxide of silver previously heated to 600° Fahr. was introduced into a platinum tube-retort containing 49.86 grains of the previously fixed salt, and 20 grains of platinum scraps, and the retort (enclosed in a test-tube) heated in a bath of melted zinc to an incipient red heat during fifteen minutes until evolution of gas ceased. The loss of weight was 1.8 grain, and about $5\frac{1}{2}$ cubic inches of gas was collected over mercury. The gas was proved to be oxygen, and the residue contained soluble undecomposed fluoride. Fluoride of silver therefore is not decomposed by heating with oxide of silver. A globe (see fig. 6) was filled with pure and dry oxygen. The platinum retort B, containing the residue of the last experiment, was fixed air-tight on the tubulure C, and the outer end of the retort heated to low redness during half an hour, the open neck of the receiver being immersed in mercury. No alteration of volume or properties of the gas took place, and the loss of weight was only '16 grain. This result, therefore, confirms the previous one. The effect of dry air upon the salt in a state of fusion has been already described (see p. 234).

With Water.—The behaviour of the salt with liquid water has been already described (see p. 231). 20 grains of the brown salt was heated to fusion in a platinum boat within a glass tube, and a current of steam passed over it; rapid decomposition took place; the salt lost its fluidity and became of a brown colour for a short time, as if converted into oxide of silver; abundance of hydrofluoric acid was set free and the glass corroded powerfully; soon, however, by more heat the whole of the salt was changed into white silver. The loss of weight was 4.45 grains, consisting no doubt of fluorine (united to hydrogen), substance carried away mechanically by the violence of the action, and a small amount of acid moisture originally contained in the brown salt. This confirms the results obtained by heating the salt to fusion in undried atmospheric air (see p. 233).

With Nitrous Oxide.—71.64 grains of the recently fused salt in a platinum boat inside a platinum tube within a platinum tube-retort at a low red heat was subjected to a current of previously dried nitrous oxide during one hour. No chemical change took place, and the loss of weight was only .27 grain. Argentic fluoride, therefore, is not decomposed by nitrous oxide at a low red heat.

With Nitric Oxide.—A current of dried nitric oxide from a mixture of nitre, sulphuric acid, water, and ferrous sulphate, was passed during forty-five minutes over 75·2 grains of the previously fused salt in a platinum boat within a short platinum tube placed in the middle of another platinum tube 508 millims. long, the salt being kept at an incipient red heat. Traces only of hydrofluoric acid were set free, and the salt lost only 5 grain in weight; the loss might have been due to traces of moisture still remaining in the gas. Argentic fluoride, therefore, is not decomposed by nitric oxide at a low red heat.

With Nitrous Anhydride.—Nitrous anhydride from a mixture of starch and partly diluted nitric acid, perfectly dried by passing through a Lieuw's condenser and then over burnt chloride of calcium, was passed during two hours over a weighed amount of the previously fused salt at a low read heat in platinum vessels. The salt was wholly converted into chloride, evidently in consequence of my having employed chloride of calcium as the drying agent.

With Peroxide of Nitrogen.—Highly dried and hot nitrate of lead in powder in a glass retort was heated until the retort was full of a red-brown vapour; the vapour then passed over 69.68 grains of gently warmed fluoride of silver (which had been previously fused) in a platinum boat within the long platinum tube (used in the nitric oxide experiment) during seventy minutes. The salt gained 4.70 grains in weight, but exhibited no signs of decomposition; by heating the residue to near redness it freely evolved brown fumes of peroxide of nitrogen. Gently warmed argentic fluoride, therefore, is not decomposed by peroxide of nitrogen, but only absorbs it. The residuary salt of this experiment was now heated just to redness in the same apparatus, and the vapour similarly prepared passed over it during $1\frac{1}{2}$ hour. During the whole of the first hour fumes were evolved which corroded dry glass freely; the corrosive action then ceased. After the process the boat was empty of silver-salt, and much reduced silver (more than 24 grains) was found in the boat and tube. The undecomposed portion of the salt had passed out of the boat by capillary action. The results were probably due to moisture still remaining in the nitrate of lead.

Fluoride of silver dissolved in hot concentrated nitric acid.

With Hydrofluoric Acid.—The behaviour of the brown salt with liquid anhydrous hydrofluoric acid has been already described (Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc. 1869, p. 191). 41-14 grains of the recently fused salt in a platinum boat within a short tube of platinum was placed in the middle part of the long platinum tube, and near the exit end of the tube was placed a second boat containing 37.88 grains of similar fused fluoride, that end of the tube having a very small exit-tube of platinum. Near the opposite end of the tube was placed a third platinum boat containing pure and anhydrous acid fluoride of potassium, and that end closed by a stopper of platinum. A red heat being now applied to the middle boat, and also gentle heat to the third boat very gradually, a current of anhydrous hydrofluoric acid vapour passed over the two boats during 13 hour, the second boat being kept below 16° C. When the current of vapour had ceased, the cold boat contained a large quantity of liquid anhydrous hydrofluoric acid, which was then expelled by application of a gentle heat. The boats were transferred to a closed platinum tube and separately reweighed. The residue in the cold boat was of a grey-white colour, and in micaceous scales, totally unlike ordinary fluoride of silver; a large portion of the fluoride, however, remained unchanged. The weight of this residue was 41.48 grains; had it all been converted into a salt of the formula AgF, HF the weight would have been 43.54 grains. The heated boat and its contents had lost only .08 grain; the residue consisted of unaltered fluoride, and showed no signs of free silver as it would have done if any moisture had been present. No special corrosion of any of the vessels occurred. From these results, supported by other reasons, I consider that a double fluoride of hydrogen and silver exists, similar to the corresponding salt of hydrogen and potassium, but more easily decomposable by heat. The non-reduction of any of the heated salt to metal affords further confirmation of the fact that the liquid expelled by heat from the acid fluoride of potassium is quite free from water (see Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc. 1869, pp. 184 & 185).

With Chlorine.—Several investigators have subjected argentic fluoride to the action of chlorine. AIME* passed chlorine over the salt at 60° Fahr. Sir H. DAVY† heated perfectly dry fluoride of silver in a glass vessel filled with chlorine; the salt was converted into chloride, the retort was violently corroded, much chlorine was absorbed, fluoride of silicon and free oxygen was produced, but no new gas was discovered.

The brown fluoride, in the proportion of 6 grains to each ounce of chlorine, was exposed to the sun's rays in a bottle full of that gas in the dry state; the yellow colour of the gas disappeared, and strong rarefaction was found on opening the vessel.

A glass receiver A (see p. 236), of 262 cub. centims. capacity, was filled with dry chlorine. A stout tube B of refractory glass (lined within its outer half with a sheet of platinum), containing a platinum boat with an equivalent quantity of recently fused argentic fluoride, was fixed to the globe air-tight by a washer of vulcanized india-rubber coated with paraffin. The neck of the globe was closed by a cork coated with paraffin and immersed in mercury. A gentle red heat was applied to the boat, and the tubulure was kept cold by a stream of water. The yellow colour of the gas disappeared in less than one hour, and the heat was continued $3\frac{\pi}{4}$ hours. The receiver was then opened under mercury, on doing which the mercury entered with force until it filled about $\frac{\pi}{6}$ of the vessel. The mercury acquired a slight film as if a little free chlorine still remained. The level of the mercury was not lowered by now applying a low red heat to the boat. No leakage of gas took place, and the bottle was comparatively but little corroded.

In a second similar experiment the retort was of platinum constructed without solder. 59 grains of the fused fluoride was employed, and a red heat applied during one hour and twenty-two minutes. The colour disappeared in three quarters of an hour, and no leakage of gas took place. On admitting the mercury it immediately filled the apparatus within 41 cub. centims. of its capacity at standard pressure. The boat was much corroded, and the contents of the tube had gained 9.5 grains in weight, the missing chlorine being 221.2 cub. centims.=10.3 grains. By heating the retort to redness its contents lost 1.06 grain; and an acid fuming vapour (probably fluoride of silicon) was evolved, which extinguished a red-hot splint.

To exclude the interferences caused by corrosion of the glass, I have employed an apparatus composed entirely of platinum, its parts being constructed without solder; it

[•] GMELIN'S Handbook of Chemistry, vol. ii. p. 359; Annal. de Chimie, vol. lv. (1833) p. 443; Liebig's Annal. vol. xvi. (1835) p. 174; Poggendorff's Annalen, vol. xxxii. (1834) p. 576.

[†] Sir H. Davy's Works, v. p. 416.

[‡] Paraffin protects vulcanized india-rubber bungs very effectually from injury by chlorine.

is represented by the annexed sketch, fig. 7. A is a tube-retort 61 inches (=165.1 Fig. 7.

*()=	,	- 520 cc. - 300 - 300 - 360 - 240 - 240 - 240 - 200	D A	7
-		180	Scale §	
	E	-140 -140 -100 -80 -60 -40 -20	• •	

millims.) long and 1 inch (=25·4 millims.) wide. B and C are the two halves of a cylindrical receiver 2 inches (=50·8 millims.) diameter and 6 inches (=152·4 millims.) high, the upper half, B, being 3 inches (=76·2 millims.) high, and fitting very accurately and tightly to about $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch (=12·7 millims.) of its height within the part C; it has a tubulure D, into which the end of the retort A has been ground nearly air-tight to a distance of 'about $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch (=12·7 millims.); and also a smaller tubulure E, $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch (=6·35 millims.) diameter, with a plug F, also ground nearly air-tight; the lower half, C, has a tubulure G, $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch (=6·35 millims) diameter, with a small hole I, 0·1 inch (=2·54 millims.) diameter in its lower surface; it has also a plug H ground in nearly air-tight, which is perforated with a hole about $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch (=3·17 millims.) diameter in the direction of the dotted lines, so as to serve the purpose of a tap.

The receiver was graduated as shown in the figure, its contents being 19.77 cubic inches (=324 cub. centims.), and the contents of the retort 4.943 cubic inches (=81 cub. centims.), or total contents of the apparatus 24.7 cubic inches (=405 cub. centims.) =18.895 grains of chlorine, or 67.578 grains of argentic fluoride=10.11 grains of fluorine. The total weight of the apparatus was about 5650 grains. The junctions of its different parts were made gas-tight by the mixture of melted paraffin and lampblack.

One experiment made with this apparatus was as follows:—Closed the receiver portion with sticks of potash in it during sixteen hours. Reheated to near redness the retort, containing a boat with 69.71 grains of recently fused argentic fluoride, and (after having removed the potash) at once fixed the retort on the receiver, and cemented the junction. Inserted a horizontal glass exit-tube, about 8 inches (=203 millims.) long, in the tubulure E, with its inner end close to the boat. Passed a stream of pure chlorine into the apparatus by the opening G, and out by the exit-tube during about thirty or forty minutes, until I knew for certain (by means of a separate special experiment I made) that not more than $\frac{1}{50}$ of the total contents of the apparatus consisted of atmospheric air. Removed the exit-tube and inserted the plugs F and H, and cemented the junctions very carefully. Supported the receiver vertically with its lower end in mercury; placed a wet rag upon the retort and tubulure at D, and kept it cold by a constant stream of

water. Heated about 3 inches of the outer end of the retort to gentle redness during seventy-six minutes. Allowed the apparatus to cool, and slightly opened the lower tap of the receiver (which was in an inclined position to prevent the mercury rising into contact with the boat) under the surface of a large and measured bulk (600 cub. centims.) of mercury in a graduated glass vessel; great rarefaction was found, and about 315 cub. centims. of mercury rushed in during four or five minutes; the bulk of gas which had disappeared was 326.37 cub. centims. (=15.236 grains of chlorine) when corrected for difference of pressure.

The tap H was now closed, and the retort separated from the receiver; the residuary gas had a strong odour of chlorine, filmed mercury powerfully, and fumed in the air; the reaction was evidently not complete. The stout platinum boat had a large hole corroded in it, and with the stout sheet platinum surrounding it, and saline residue, showed an increase of 16.46 grains in weight. The weight of the salt alone could not be definitely ascertained. The saline matter was red-brown, and contained much dissolved platinum; traces of it (weighing ·15 grain) were found upon the retort. It was a little deliquescent and contained a small quantity of undecomposed fluoride, but consisted nearly wholly of a double salt in which chloride of silver was united to tetrafluoride of platinum. After cleaning the apparatus the following losses of weight were found:—retort, 1.67 grain; sheet platinum, ·64 grain; boat, 20.58 grains; total, 22.89 grains (=16.754 grains of chlorine). This includes some particles of metallic platinum imbedded in the salt. These results show that the chlorine was absorbed without liberating much (if any) fluorine, and that 1.67 grain of platinum had been transferred from the retort to the saline mass.

Thinking that the platinum boat may have conduced to the formation of the double salt, I made another similar experiment, using, however, a boat of pure gold and 70·16 grains of recently fused fluoride. In this experiment the outer end of the retort became concave (indicating rarefaction) long before the end of the heating process. On opening the apparatus under mercury powerful rarefaction was found, and 300 cub. centims. of mercury rapidly ran in, and more would have entered but was prevented. Much free chlorine was again found, the gas fumed in the air, and the retort and its contents had gained 16·20 grains in weight. The gold boat and sheet platinum were powerfully corroded where the saline matter touched them. The saline residue contained very little soluble matter. After cleaning the apparatus the losses of weight were as follows:—retort, 1·13 grain; sheet platinum, 14·59 grains; boat, 11·36 grains; total, 27·08 grains. After dissolving the chloride of silver by aqueous ammonia, and the salts of gold and platinum by hydrochloric acid, 6·32 grains of fragments and dust of those metals was found, thereby reducing the total loss by corrosion to 20·76 grains. The general and numerical results of this experiment closely agree with those of the preceding one *.

^{*} A number of other experiments were also made with this apparatus, but with its lower half composed of glass; in each instance the glass was more or less corroded, and there was less rarefaction than with the receiver formed wholly of platinum; I have not described the results obtained because of the interference produced by this corrosion.

I conclude, therefore, that chlorine does not set free fluorine from fluoride of silver at a low red heat in vessels of gold or platinum, but unites chemically with that salt and with the metal of the vessel to form a compound from which fluorine is not set free at a low red heat.

I now tried a method of getting boats of pure carbon in order to repeat the foregoing experiment. The method consisted in making boats of lignum-vitæ, baking them very gradually until they were quite black and evolved no visible liquid, then heating them with extreme slowness in a nearly closed copper tube, with frequent turning until the tube was quite red-hot, and cooling them very slowly. On heating fluoride of silver in one of them inside a platinum tube-retort, it became nearly wholly reduced to metal, probably in consequence of the presence of hydrogen in the boat. To purify the boats from that substance, a number of them were heated to redness in a porcelain tube with a current of chlorine passing over them during three hours; nearly the whole of them fell to pieces during the process.

I also obtained a large variety of specimens of native graphite, and made many boats from the purest and hardest varieties *, and also from selected pieces of gas-carbon †. To purify them, they were digested about six days in hot concentrated hydrochloric acid until soluble matter ceased to come out, then in boiling water, then in cold and pure aqueous hydrofluoric acid during six days, and again in boiling water until all acid was removed. They were now dried and ignited to expel sulphur; and to remove hydrogen they were heated to redness in a platinum tube-retort in a current of bromine‡ vapour during more than one hour; and to remove any remaining silica they were similarly heated in vapour of pure aqueous hydrofluoric acid during one hour; then finally heated to redness in an open platinum tube. Boats thus prepared had no chemical effect upon melted fluoride of silver at a low red heat, provided they were heated to redness immediately before use.

The following kinds of native graphite were tried. Ceylon graphite; the hardest specimens were too fragile. Graphite from Iceland; much too impure. Compressed Cumberland graphite; fell to powder when heated in hydrochloric acid. Graphite from Greenland; split into layers in the process of carving. SIDOROFF'S graphite from the Lower Tongooska River, Siberia\(\delta\); boats made of it cracked when heated with fluoride of silver in chlorine. Graphite from "Marbella, Andulasia," also a specimen of "Siberian graphite" formed good boats, but were rather soft. Excellent boats were made from a specimen of "Graphite from Spain;" but the best were made from Alibert's graphite from Irkoutsk, and that from Borrodale. Many specimens contained veins and nodules of quartz.

^{*} The best I have found have been the purest varieties of ALIBERT's Siberian plumbago, obtained from Messrs.

FABER, of Stein, near Nuremberg; and also selected pieces of Borrodale graphite.

[†] Boats of this substance have been made for me in a satisfactory manner by Mr. J. Thorr, 3 Charles Street, Wandsworth Road, London.

[‡] If chlorine was used the boats became covered with minute spangles of platinum.

[§] Given to me by Mr. BRANDT, Palmerston Buildings, Bishopsgate Street, London.

Given to me by the Piambago Crucible Company, Battersea, London.

Pure chlorine was passed in a slow stream during 1½ hour over 30.66 grains of previously fused argentic fluoride in a boat of purified gas-carbon in a short platinum tube within a long one at a barely visible red heat; a fuming vapour, which corroded glass freely, was evolved during the earlier part of the process, and a small amount of platinum salt sublimed. The saline residue weighed 35.14 grains, theory requiring 34.82 grains of argentic chloride, if the correction be made for the amount of free silver in the original fluoride. The residue was non-deliquescent, and had the physical properties of argentic chloride slightly coloured by traces of platinum salt. After cleaning the two tubes by means of aqueous ammonia and by hydrochloric acid, the short one had lost 3.58 grains, and the long one 1.31 grain by corrosive action of the gas. In this experiment I consider the fluorine passed away in chemical union with the carbon of the boat, and that the corrosive action upon the platinum was due to the chlorine.

69.59 grains of recently fused fluoride in a partly purified and recently ignited boat of Siberian graphite, was heated to incipient redness in the graduated platinum receiver apparatus during 34 hours, and then stood all night. No leakage occurred. On opening the receiver under mercury less powerful rarefaction occurred than when a boat of platinum or gold was employed, and about 260 cub. centims. (=12.1 grains of chlorine) of mercury ran in. A slow absorption of gas then took place, after which the residuary gas was 130 cub. centims, at ordinary pressure and temperature. On opening the receiver free chlorine was found, and the gas fumed in the air. A film of brown sublimed salt of platinum was spread over the inside of the vessel. The saline residue weighed 76.18 grains (=14.11 grains or 302.27 cub. centims. of effective chlorine); it consisted of argentic chloride containing some undecomposed fluoride. After cleaning the platinum articles by suitable solvents, they were found to have lost 4.81 grains=3.467 grains, or 74.3 cub. centims. of chlorine taken up by them and rendered non-effective. Some chlorine was also absorbed by the mercury on its admission. The carbon boat was slightly corroded around the silver-salt, and its weight was increased 2.07 grains; by heating it to low redness in a nearly closed platinum retort, it evolved a strong acid odour and a vapour which corroded glass rapidly, and lost 1.57 grain in weight. I consider that the residuary gas was a compound of fluorine and carbon containing free chlorine, and that there were interferences in the results caused by several circumstances.

To obtain a more accurate result with the same apparatus, I took an excess, or 117·11 grains, of recently fused fluoride in a very pure boat of Borrodale graphite (weighing 119·4 grains) which had just been heated nearly to redness. A slight leakage took place, and the receiver had to be refilled with gas, thereby causing the silver-salt to take up ·4 grain of chlorine. The end of the retort containing the boat was heated to low redness during four hours, and the apparatus then set aside thirty-six hours at 60° Fahr. On opening the receiver under mercury, 282 cub. centims. ran in under ordinary pressure=123 cub. centims. of residual gas. Warming the receiver did not much expand the enclosed gas, showing thereby the absence of any highly volatile liquid. On separating the retort from the receiver no chlorine remained, and the mercury was not

filmed; the excess of silver-salt employed had made the reaction complete. enclosed gas was colourless, heavy, fumed in the air, had no odour of chlorine, but a peculiar characteristic dusty odour very distinctly, similar to that evolved when hisulphide of carbon is digested with iodine and a large excess of dry argentic fluoride. The gas did not attack mercury or dry glass. It was freely absorbed by purified plumbago: the boat of graphite absorbed 2.88 grains of it at 60° Fahr. The retort and contents had gained 12.90 grains (including the 2.88 grains of gas absorbed by the boat). The saline residue weighed 125.62 grains=8.11 grains gain of weight=17.448 grains, or 379-27 cub. centims. of effective chlorine=9-338 grains of expelled fluorine; it contained undecomposed fluoride of silver freely. The boat was corroded all over its inner surface only, and smelt strongly of the residuary gas. By heating it nearly to redness in a nearly closed platinum tube during half an hour, the gas was expelled, and it lost 2.88 grains in weight. Its final weight was 117.72 grains=1.68 grain lost by the heating in chlorine. The platinum apparatus was less corroded than in previous experiments, owing to the more rapid absorption of the chlorine by the excess of argentic fluoride, and had lost only 1.33 grain = 958 grain, or 20.53 cub. centims. of chlorine rendered non-effective.

The general results of this experiment may be approximately explained as follows:—The apparatus, when ready for heating, contained 394.5 cub. centims. or 18.406 grains of chlorine, and 10.5 cub. centims. (or a little less) of air, and about 117.5 grains of silver-salt. Of this quantity of chlorine, about .958 grain was rendered non-effective; the remaining 17.448 grains united with the silver of the fluoride and expelled 9.338 grains of fluorine, which united with 1.474 grain of carbon of the boat and produced 10.812 grains of tetrafluoride of carbon, of which 2.88 grains was in an absorbed state in the boat when the gas was measured, and the remaining 7.932 grains occupied about 123 cub. centims. in the apparatus.

To obtain a still more accurate result I employed a still larger excess of the fluoride, and diminished the heated platinum surface by discarding a boat and cup I had previously employed to contain the carbon boat, and also heated a less length of the retort. The same boat was used; it contained 153·1 grains of the fused salt. The boat and contents was heated during three hours, and then cooled during $1\frac{1}{2}$ hour. On opening the receiver under mercury about 162 cub. centims. of residuary gas (=a loss of about 1·48 grain of carbon from the boat) was found; it contained no free chlorine. On applying a red heat to the outer end of the retort the gas was considerably increased in volume, and returned only partly to its original bulk on cooling, showing that the boat or its contents absorbed some of the gas. Some of the gas was transferred to a glass vessel over mercury; it was colourless, clear, and did not corrode mercury or glass in twenty days. On taking the retort off the receiver the gas exhibited the same properties as in the last experiment, and contained no free chlorine. The amount of sublimed platinum salt was now very small, only ·49 grain=·20 grain of chlorine rendered non-effective. The total gain of the retort and its contents was only 7·35 grains, chiefly in

consequence of the boat and outer end of the retort having been heated to redness before disconnecting them from the receiver. The saline residue weighed 161·17 grains=a gain of 7·87 grains=16·93 grains, or 362·8 cub. centims. of effective chlorine. After heating the boat to just below redness for half an hour in a nearly closed platinum retort, it was found to weigh 1·63 grain less than after heating to redness immediately before the experiment. The results are substantially the same as those of the last experiment, and may be explained in a similar manner.

In another experiment made for the purpose of collecting some of the gas, the same boat, containing $177 \cdot 2$ grains of the fused fluoride, was employed, and the retort was heated $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours. About $156 \cdot 4$ cub. centims. of gas was found*, and the properties of the gas were the same as those previously found. Three separate small portions of it were mixed with an equal volume of hydrogen in one instance, and with twice its volume in the other instances, and a light applied; combustion only, without explosion, took place, hydrofluoric acid was formed, and the glass became corroded on the entrance of atmospheric air. The gas therefore was not free fluorine. The odour of the gas was the same as that observed in other experiments in which fluoride of carbon was formed by different reactions.

* The true volume of gas could not be accurately determined in these experiments on account of its absorption by the carbon boat, and also on account of the opacity of the receiver.

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XIII. On a distinct form of Transient Hemiopsia*. By Hubert Airy, M.A., M.D. Communicated by the Astronomer Royal.

Received January 6,-Read February 17, 1870.

It is certainly matter of surprise that a morbid affection of the eyesight, so striking as to engage the attention of Wollaston, Arago, Brewster, Herschel, and the present Astronomer Royal, should have received but little notice from that profession to whose province it exclusively belongs. But it must be borne in mind that the votaries of Natural Philosophy are especially qualified by their habits of accurate observation to contemplate attentively any strange apparition, without or within, and, I had almost said, are especially exposed to the risk of impairment (temporary or permanent) of the eyesight, by the severity of the eye-work and brain-work they undergo, and therefore possess especial advantages for the study of visual derangements; whereas the physician, unless personally subject to the malady, must depend, for his acquaintance with its phenomena, on the imperfect or exaggerated accounts of patients untrained to observe closely or record faithfully. The complaint cannot be a rare one; each writer on the subject, in addition to his own personal experience, has mentioned instances of the same affection among his friends. In the whole body of the medical profession there must be many who are at once liable to the disease and able to describe it. And it is not unimportant. I have seen a person, terribly subject to these attacks, shudder at the very name, and turn away in horror from a drawing of the ugly sight, quite content to bear serious illness "if only the 'half-blindness' would keep away."

I think it will appear from the various accounts to which I shall refer, and from the different instances which I shall bring forward, that there are more forms than one, of transient hemiopsia.

The characters of that form to which I wish chiefly to direct attention, as described in the latter part of this paper, are so remarkable, that it is difficult to believe that such observers as Wollaston, Arago, and Brewster could have failed to notice them if present, or could have refrained from recording them if noticed.

^{*} Most writers have used the word 'Hemiopia' (ημιωπία), apparently relying on the analogy of 'Amblyopia' (άμβλυωπία, Hippocrates, Aphorism. III. 31). But I conceive that ἀμβλυωπία, from ἀμβλυωπός, ought in grammatical strictness to be used of the eye, not of the eyesight (compare φαιδρωπός, bright-eyed; πυρωπός, fire-eyed; γοργωπός, fierce-eyed), though it seems to admit of the same laxity of meaning as our word 'dull-eyed.' 'Hemiopia' would mean 'half-eyedness.' The form 'Hemiopsia' rests on the analogy of words like αὐτοψία and ὑποψία, referring purely to the eyesight.

It is hardly necessary to indicate, in the outset, the broad distinction between Transient and Permanent Hemiopsia. The latter, as the more important, has naturally received the larger share of attention from the ophthalmists, and a reference to their works will show its characters to be markedly different from those of the transient forms. In Dr. Bader's recent work on 'The Natural and Morbid Changes of the Human Eye,' p. 447, 'Hemiopia' is clearly described as presenting three varieties, of which the first is the only one that comes into comparison with the transient forms, and the chief characteristic of that first variety is concisely stated in these words: "The line of demarcation between the sensitive and blind part of the retina is vertical and sharply defined." This fact, together with the permanency of the graver form, and its association with intra-cranial tumours, apoplexy with hemiplegia, &c., will be found to offer strong points of distinction between the permanent and the transient forms of Hemiopsia.

Most writers on the subject refer, as to a fountain-head, to Dr. Wollaston's well-known paper "On Semi-decussation of the Optic Nerves" (Phil. Trans. 1824, I. p. 222), in which he gives a graphic account of two attacks of 'half-blindness,' with an interval of twenty years between them.

On comparing his account with later descriptions, I think it will be recognized that Wollaston, Arago, and Brewster are describing one form, while Sir John Herschel, Sir Charles Wheatstone, the Astronomer Royal, and Professor Dufour, with myself, are describing another (which had also been noticed by Dr. Fothergill and Dr. Parry). The striking facts of gradual increase, motion, form, and colour which characterize the records of the later group, could not have escaped the notice of the three earlier observers, if present; and we must conclude from their silence that these features were wanting or at least were inconspicuous.

In Dr. Wollaston's paper, the passage of chief importance for comparison with other accounts is the following:—"This blindness was not so complete as to amount to absolute blackness, but was a shaded darkness without definite outline. The complaint was of short duration, and in about a quarter of an hour might be said to be wholly gone, having receded with a gradual motion from the centre of vision obliquely upwards towards the left." The author lays stress on the equal affection of both eyes, and concludes that corresponding tracts of the two retine receive fibres from the seat of disease.

Wollaston's paper attracted much attention abroad as well as at home. A full translation of it appears in the 'Annales de Chimie et de Physique' (tom. xxvii. p. 102), and the editor, M. Arago, appends a note in which he illustrates the subject from his own experience. There can be no doubt that Arago and Wollaston describe the same affection, but in both accounts we miss the remarkable features that characterize the particular form of hemiopsia on which I shall chiefly have to dwell.

A great part of Dr. Wollaston's paper is quoted and corroborated by Dr. Pravaz, in the 'Archives Générales de Médecine' (tom. viii. p. 76, 1^{ère} série).

From Sir David Brewster's interesting paper "On Hemiopsy, or Half-vision" (published in the Edinburgh Transactions, vol. xxiv. part i., and also in the Philosophical Magazine for 1865, vol. xxix. p. 503), I must quote one or two passages for the sake of illustration.

"The blindness," he says, "or insensibility to distinct impressions, exists chiefly in a small portion of the retina to the right or left hand of the foramen centrale*, and extends itself irregularly to other parts of the retina on the same side, in the neighbourhood of which the vision is uninjured."

"In the case of ordinary hemiopsy, as observed by myself, there is neither darkness nor obscurity, the portion of the paper from which the letters disappear being as bright as those upon which they are seen. Now this is a remarkable condition of the retina. While it is sensible to luminous impressions, it is insensible to the lines and shades of the pictures which it receives of external objects; or, in other words, the retina is in certain parts of it in such a state that the light which falls upon it is irradiated, or passes into the dark lines or shades of the pictures upon it, and obliterates them."

"The parts which are in these cases affected extend irregularly from the foramen centrale to the margin of the retina, as if they were related to the distribution of its blood-vessels, and hence it was probable that the paralysis of the corresponding parts of the retina was produced by their pressure. This opinion might have long remained merely a reasonable explanation of hemiopsy, had not a phenomenon presented itself to me which places it beyond a doubt. When I had a rather severe attack, which never took place unless I had been reading for a long time the small print of the 'Times' newspaper, and which was never accompanied either with headache or gastric irritation, I went accidentally into a dark room, when I was surprised to observe that all the parts of the retina which were affected were slightly luminous, an effect invariably produced by pressure upon that membrane. If these views be correct, hemiopsy cannot be regarded as a case of amaurosis, or in any way connected, as has been supposed, with cerebral disturbance."

"The two great facts of hemiopsy in both eyes, and of what is called single vision with two eyes, do not require the hypothesis of semidecussation to explain them. If hemiopsy is produced by the distended blood-vessels of the retina, these vessels must be similarly distributed in each eye, and similarly affected by any change in the system; and consequently must produce the same effect upon each retina, and upon the same part of it."

^{*} Under this term Brewster appears to have confounded what are now called the "optic disk" and the "yellow spot." For when he localizes the first beginning of the affection "to the right or left hand of the foramen centrale," he certainly means the centre of vision, as also below when he speaks of vision being perfect at the foramen centrale: yet when he afterwards speaks of the parts affected extending from the foramen centrale to the margin of the retina, "as if they were related to the distribution of its blood-vessels," he is certainly thinking of the optic disk, the punctum execum, whence the vessels radiate over the retina.

It is quite inconceivable that the blood-vessels of one retina should be disposed in perfect unsymmetrical correspondence with those of the other (the left side of one agreeing with the left side of the other, and the right with the right); and in fact they are not so disposed. And even if they were, and if the phenomenon were due to their disturbance, its spread would be ruled by geometrical radiation from the punctum execum, where nerve and vessels enter the eye, not from the 'yellow spot' at the centre of vision; and we should have two unconformable spectra, one on each side of the centre, perhaps overlapping, but certainly not coinciding, since the puncta execa are not corresponding points in vision.

Sir David Brewster's experience seems to differ a little from Dr. Wollaston's, the "shaded darkness" of the latter contrasting with the words "neither darkness nor obscurity" of the former; yet I think they are describing the same affection. The difference was probably due to the different circumstances of light &c. under which the observations were made. Wollaston was in the full light of the open air; Brewster speaks of his severe attacks as brought on by reading the 'Times,' probably therefore in his study, or at least indoors.

I believe Brewster's is the earliest mention (except Dr. Parry's) of the self-luminous state of the parts affected, when observed in a dark room, and of the sensibility to general impressions of light which they retain.

Sir David Brewster's paper in the Philosophical Magazine gave occasion to another paper in the same Journal (Phil. Mag. July 1865, vol. xxx. p. 19) by the Astronomer Royal, who adds many particulars of great interest, and gives us a vivid picture in place of the imperfect sketches of previous writers. Indeed it is difficult to avoid the belief that we are dealing here with a new form of the disease. The outward spread of the cloud, its arched shape, its serrated outline, with smaller teeth at one end than at the other, its remarkable tremor, greater where the teeth are greater, its "boiling," its tinge of scarlet, and its sequel of partial aphasia and loss of memory, are all new features, not mentioned by any previous observer, but most important for the identification of the complaint*. This form of hemiopsia is the one to which I desire chiefly to direct attention, the one which I am able to illustrate from my own experience.

A translation of Professor Airy's paper appeared in 'Les Mondes' (April 16, 1868), and not long afterwards he received a letter (April 24, 1868) from Professor Durour, of Lausanne, from which I extract the following:—

"C'est avec un intérêt particulièrement vif, que j'ai lu cet article: car j'ai été plusieurs fois atteint de l'affection optique que vous décrivez. Jusqu'ici, j'en avais parlé à deux médecins qui n'ont pas paru connaître ce cas curieux, et je me figurais qu'il s'agissait d'un accident auquel seul j'étais sujet. Votre description de l'hémiopsie décrit si exacte-

^{*} I am able to add, from later information, that in my father's case the phenomenon exhibits conspicuous luminosity in a dark room.

ment et si perfaitement ce que je ressens, qu'il ne peut y avoir aucun doute. Permettezmoi de vous signaler les observations suivantes que j'ai faites sur moi-même à l'endroit de cette maladie.

- "1. L'attaque commence très brusquement et toujours vers le centre du champ de la vision. Je cesse de voir les points que je fixe, conservant très bien, à ce premier moment, la vision latérale.
- "2. Les lignes avec zig-zags se produisent alors bientôt; mais, dans les premières minutes, les zig-zags me semblent plus petits. Ils deviennent plus grands ensuite.
- "3. Je crois que, chez moi, les deux yeux sont affectés en même temps; mais dans l'un l'affection optique est généralement plus intense.
 - "4. L'attaque dure toujours une demi-heure environ.
- "5. Je n'ai pas remarqué que durant l'attaque j'éprouvais plus de peine à parler. Il m'est arrivé de terminer une leçon après avoir été atteint; je continuais à parler, mais je n'ai pu tracer des lignes sur le tableau noir.
- "6. Ces attaques se sont produites à intervalles irrégulières et sans que je puisse en soupçonner la cause immédiate, depuis une dizaine d'années. J'en ai eu, en somme, une douzaine.
- "7. Autrefois, l'attaque était invariablement suivie d'un très violent mal de tête, qui me rendait très souffrant durant plusieurs heures. J'ai eu le bonheur de trouver un moyen qui neutralise, presque tout-à-fait, cette suite pénible, et c'est surtout pour vous indiquer ce moyen que j'ai pris la liberté de vous écrire à ce sujet. Dès que l'attaque a commencé, jc me mouille abondamment le front, les tempes, la nuque, les yeux avec de l'eau froide, plus froide et mieux. Je répète cette operation plusieurs fois pendant que le phénomène optique dure, et je tâche d'ailleurs de demeurer tranquille avec les yeux fermés. J'ai pratiqué cet abondant lavage à l'eau froide, pour la première fois, il y a quatre ans: l'accident s'est passé sans mal de tête. La seconde fois, même operation et même succés. La troisième fois, j'ai été atteint loin de chez moi et dans des circonstances où je n'ai pu avoir de l'eau: le mal de tête est arrivé comme jadis avec toute sa violence. Enfin, à ma dernière attaque, il y a quelques mois, j'ai pu de nouveau employer l'eau, et le mal de tête n'a pas paru d'une façon pénible."

Thus far we notice that the several records to which I have referred hang together by an interesting chain of historical succession. Wollaston's memoir seems to have led to those of Arago and Brewster, Brewster's gave occasion to Professor Airy's, and Professor Airy's in turn evoked the orderly evidence of Professor Dufour.

The next account I have to quote is wholly independent of all earlier descriptions. It is Sir John Herschel's, and is to be found in his 'Familiar Lectures on Scientific Subjects,' p. 406, in Lecture IX. "On Sensorial Vision" (delivered before the Philosophical and Literary Society of Leeds, Sept. 30th, 1858).

"I was sitting one morning very quietly at my breakfast-table, doing nothing and

thinking of nothing, when I was startled by a singular shadowy appearance at the outside corner of the field of vision of the left eye. It gradually advanced into the field of view, and then appeared to be a pattern in straight-lined-angular forms, very much in general aspect like the drawing of a fortification, with salient and re-entering angles, bastions, and ravelins, with some suspicion of faint lines of colour between the dark lines. The impression was very strong, equally so with the eyes open or closed, and it appeared to advance slowly from out of the corner till it spread all over the visual area, and passed across to the right side, where it disappeared. I cannot say how long it lasted, but it must have been a minute or two. I was a little alarmed, looking on it as the precursor of some disorder of the eyes, but no ill consequence followed. Several years afterwards the same thing occurred again, and I recognized, not indeed the same precise form, but the same general character—the fortification outline, the dark and bright lines, and the steady progressive advance from left to right. I have mentioned this to several persons, but have only met with one to whom it has occurred. This was a lady of my acquaintance, who assured me that she had often experienced a similar affection, and that it was always followed by a violent headache, which was not the case with me. In this case the regularity of the pattern was not great, but the lines were quite straight and the angles sharp and well defined. Had it remained stationary, it might be assumed that the retina had a structure corresponding to the figure, and that some unduc pressure might render that structure visible. But such an hypothesis is precluded by the gradual transit of the lines over every part of the visual area."

The following extract from a letter from Sir John Herschel to myself (May 4, 1868) will show that in his later experience the affection has begun near the centre of vision.

"It is very strange, and I am sure more than a coincidence, that two or three hours after I had read your letter, and while in the act of reading a printed book, I caught the impression of the commencement of an attack in the obliteration of one or two letters a little to the left and below the point of vision. Soon after, further out to the left in a wavy course, the printed letters ran into large angular black zigzags, and then I knew what was coming, and shutting my eyes I watched the development of the luminous bastions, &c. It was, however, by no means so well developed or striking an instance as I have had, but it is its recurrence evidently as a consequence of the mind dwelling on its description that I look on as worth notice."

Sir John Herschel has very kindly communicated to me his latest experience in a letter dated Nov. 17, 1869.

"Since I wrote to you I have been very frequently visited with the phenomenon—in a greater or less degree,—never, however, with the extreme vividness of colour and distinctness of form as heretofore; and it has assumed some new features, viz. patches of a kind of coloured chequer work in some of the corners of the fortification forms.

"It always now begins with a small glimmer near the middle of the field of view, and

spreads out. I am now most distinctly able to say that it sometimes opens out from left to right, and sometimes from right to left.

"Here is what I find recorded in a memorandum of June 22 ult.— The fortification pattern twice in my eyes today. The first was turned leftwards. Colours red and black, or red, yellow and black with little blue, and at moments only black and white. Also a sort of chequer worked filling in, in (?) rectangular patches, and a carpet-work pattern over the rest of the [internal] visual area.

" 'The second and far the brightest and most beautiful in colouring was turned to the Colours very vivid. Red, blue, yellow, black. Not sure of any green.'

"I have sometimes had an impression that one eye only was affected—the right eye being affected with the right-handed and the left with the left-handed spectrum; but I never could devise any means of coming to a conclusion as to this point, and on the whole I lean to the opinion that both eyes are concerned in either case."

Very recently (1870, Jan 15) I have become acquainted, through the kindness of Professor Stokes, with the following description by Sir C. WHEATSTONE of a form of hemiopsia differing from my own in nothing but the total absence of colour. With the writer's permission I insert the whole.

"I will here subjoin the note I made at the time I was first attacked with this affection.

" 'Sept. 30th, 1849.—This evening I had a curious affection of vision. Whilst I was writing, characters near the centre of vision became invisible. Thus fixing my eyes on the figure 6 in the group 4⁶/₇, 4 and 7 were completely obliterated. On closing each eye alternately, I found precisely the same result. This did not arise from an ocular spectrum, for neither a black nor a coloured spot was projected on the paper, the disappearance was exactly that of an object when placed in the projection of the entrance of the optic nerve. After a short time the spot became larger, spreading towards the left in both eyes until it occupied a large oval space; objects at and near the centre of vision reappeared, but nearly the left half of each retina was blinded. The phenomenon in its later stages was accompanied by an effect like the motion of a luminous liquid. At the time the luminous mist entirely passed away, about half an hour after its commencement, a slight fainting sensation came over me.'

"I have frequently, though generally at very distant intervals, been subject to this affection. It has usually occurred whilst reading. It has always commenced near the centre of the retina, and ordinarily expanded towards the left. The zigzag luminous lines which border the spectrum externally do not commence until it has received some expansion, and they become brighter as it enlarges; before it disappears vision is restored to the central part of the retina, and when the zigzag lines arrive at the limit of the field of view, the entire vision becomes clear. On one occasion I drew with a pen the outline of the spot, a short time after its first development, as it appeared to each eye separately projected on the paper; both outlines exactly corresponded. I have never suffered any 2 L

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inconvenience after these attacks, and my vision, although I have at times tried my eyes severely with optical experiments, is I believe as good as ever, though I have been subject occasionally to this affection for more than twenty years. The only difference between the phenomena as they appear to me and as they are described by Dr. Airv is, that in my case they are always unaccompanied with colour.

This case, though clearly belonging to the later group (p. 248), yet in absence of colour shows a step towards the earlier, and suggests that all the forms of transient hemiopsia are but varieties of one and the same affection, differing only in degree of prominence of their different features. We must look for more connecting links before we can be satisfied that it is so.

Hitherto I have quoted only from non-medical authorities, and I think no one can fail to be struck by the amount of attention that this obscure malady has received from so many writers of such high scientific attainments.

Most medical works that I have consulted give but little information concerning Transient Hemiopsia. The fullest notice of the subject that I have met with is in Tyrrell's 'Diseases of the Eye' (vol. ii. p. 231), under the head of "Functional Amaurosis from Cerebral Disturbance."

But very lately (April 7, 1870) my attention has been drawn to two passages in the writings of earlier authors in which the disease in question is plainly to be recognized. The first is to be found in the works of Dr. Fothergill, "Remarks on the Sick Headach" (a paper read before the Select Society of Licentiates, Dec. 14, 1778). Speaking of butter as an article of diet, he says, "Nothing more speedily and effectually gives the sick-headach, and sometimes within a very few hours. After breakfast, if much toast and butter has been used, it begins with a singular kind of glimmering in the sight; objects swiftly changing their apparent position, surrounded with luminous angles, like those of a fortification. Giddiness comes on, headach, and sickness. An emetic, and warm water soon wash off the offending matter, and remove these disorders."

The other passage to which I refer occurs at pages 557, 558 of the first volume of 'Collections from the unpublished medical writings of the late Caleb Hillier Parry, of Bath, 1825.'

"After violent fatigue, more especially when accompanied with fasting eight or ten hours, which has often happened to me, and now, Sept. 26, 1808, I have frequently experienced a sudden failure of sight. The general sight did not appear affected; but when I looked at any particular object, it seemed as if something brown, and more or less opake, was interposed between my eyes and it, so that I saw it indistinctly or sometimes not at all. Most generally it seemed to be exactly in the middle of the object, while what my sight comprehended all round it, was as distinct and clear as usual, in

^{*} Sir Charles Wheatstone had seen my description before the paper was finally presented.

consequence of which, if I wished to see anything, I was obliged to look on one side. At other times, though much more rarely, the cloud was on one side of the direct line of vision. After it had continued a few minutes, the upper or lower edge, I think always the upper, appeared bounded by an edging of light of a ziqzaq shape, and coruscating nearly at right angles to its length. The coruscation always seemed to be in one eye; but both it and the cloud existed equally, whether I looked at an object with one or both eyes open. When I shut both eyes, covering them with my hand so as to exclude all rays of light, the coruscation was still perceptible in the same place, and what had been a semi-opake cloud appeared lighter than the rest. When I raised or lowered the axes of my eyes, or squinted, the cloud and coruscation, though it moved its place, still bore the same relation to the object at which I looked. In this way they would remain from twenty minutes sometimes to half an hour, the cloud lessening as the coruscation continued, and the latter sometimes rather suddenly going off. They were in me never followed by headach, but seemed evidently connected with the state of the stomach; for though they sometimes occurred without any feeling of indisposition at the time, either there or elsewhere, they generally went off with a movement in the stomach, producing eructation; and anything which produced a glow in the stomach, with eructation, and perhaps without it, such as brandy, hot water, &c., always hasten their departure."

My own experience of Hemiopsia dates from 1854. I was so much struck by the first attack that I made a record of it at the time, which I allow myself to transcribe here as an authentic and independent, though very incomplete, account.

"Friday, Oct. 6th.—This morning (the last before the Michaelmas Holidays) I had an attack of that half-blindness to which —— is subject; she had one yesterday. It came on while I was with Mr. Drew*, and I noticed it first by being unable to see the 't' in "tan A" when I looked at the top. At first it looked just like the spot which you see after having looked at the sun or some bright object; I thought it might be an eyelash in the way, or something of that sort, but I was soon undeceived when it began to increase. I then bethought me that it must be the same thing that —— suffered from, so I let it alone, knowing that it would go off in time, which it did, leaving a most terrible headache behind it, which is the worst part of it, the blindness itself giving no pain whatever. When it was in its height it seemed like a fortified town with bastions all round it, these bastions being coloured most gorgeously. If I put my pen into the space where there was this dimness, I could not see it at all, I could not even distinguish the colour of the ink at the end. All the interior of the fortification, so to speak, was boiling and rolling about in a most wonderful manner as if it was some thick liquid all alive. It did not belong only to one eye, but to both, the right eye having the most."

^{*} Now Professor of Mathematics at King's College, London, formerly Vice-Principal of the Blackheath Proprietary School.

This account of my first atack may very well stand for a description of my last, about a month ago. The type has remained unaltered from that time to this. It is not stated, and I cannot remember, whether that first attack was on the right side or on the left: from the last words I should think it was the former.

Since then I have very frequently been revisited by this affection, perhaps as often as a hundred times, possibly much oftener, sometimes at intervals of a month or two, or a week or two, or a day or two, sometimes on successive days, sometimes twice in the same day, sometimes twice in the same hour, the second attack beginning before the first had quite passed away. The circumstances and features of the complaint have varied somewhat in different attacks. I will first describe its usual course, and then refer to varieties.

Usually after two or three hours' close reading, especially if I have had insufficient exercise, I become aware that part of the letter I am looking at, or a word at some little distance from the sight-point* (in most cases, below, to the left), is eclipsed by a dim cloud-spot that would not be noticed except for this obliteration. Even at this very earliest stage, the tremor, that is so characteristic of the developed disease, can be detected, and as the cloud enlarges, it begins to assume its proper zigzag outline, enriched with tinges of colour.

At this early stage the spot is but faintly luminous in a dark room, or with the eyes shut and shaded, and scarcely shows at all against a bright sky. Its shape and colours are best seen by looking at a shady part of the ceiling or a neutral-tinted wall.

When this blind spot makes its appearance close to the centre of vision, as soon as it begins to spread, and shows a serrated margin, it at once presents the irregular horse-shoe shape, with one arm adherent to the sight-point, and the other receding from it outward. The teeth of the adherent arm are small and fine, those of the receding arm grow larger and larger (Plate XXV. figs. 1-4).

But when the blind spot takes origin at some distance from the centre of vision, as it spreads it preserves its contour unbroken, stellate, nearly circular, until its margin nears the centre of vision; then the serration at the point nearest the centre shows irregularity, and a breach appears in the outline: one branch of the incomplete circle takes a smaller pattern of zigzag, and attaches itself to the centre of vision, the other branch takes a larger pattern of zigzag and recedes (Plate XXV. figs. 5-8).

The enlargement is slow at first, and gradually quickens.

Almost from the very first it may be noticed that parts of the faint cloud have a slow rolling heaving swaying motion to and fro, by which the outline is altered from time to time and again restored in the gradual outward spread; and superadded to this slow rolling there is rapid flickering tremor (about five vibrations per second) of the marginal rays, affecting especially such parts as are rolling at the same time.

^{*} I have employed indifferently the expressions "sight-point," "point of sight," "centre of vision," "centre of the field of view," to signify the point on which the eyes are fixed.

These three orders of motion, (1) gradual outward spread of the whole, (2) slow rolling of parts, (3) rapid tremor of the margin, are especially characteristic of this affection.

As the cloud extends its borders, its central region begins to fade, and clear vision begins to return in the concavity of the seething crescent. As fast as the trembling rolling jagged margin encroaches on the clear field outside, so fast the power of the enemy is waning and the faculty of sight is reasserting itself in the rear of his advance (Plate XXV. figs. 4 & 8).

The sight of both eyes is affected exactly in the same manner and in the same degree (though naturally that eye seems most affected which corresponds to the obliterated side of the field of view, because the nasal half of the field of view of either eye is more limited, and vision there is less distinct than on the temporal side). Whether the one eye, or the other, or both, be open, the same strange sight is seen—no mere general resemblance, but absolute identity, indubitable, unmistakable. Every angle of the outline, every gleam of colour, is still there, in its place,—survives the ordeal of alternate closure of the eyes, unaltered except by its own gradual outward spread.

When the cyes rest on a printed page, the cloud is seen as a faint shade of horseshoe shape, with serrated margin, bright-lined in some places, and varied with changing gleams of red and blue and yellow and green and orange, in order of frequency, now one colour, now another, slowly waxing and waning in harmony with the unrest around. All words and letters covered by this strange intruder are completely blotted out; those immediately adjoining the margin seem smeared into it, not cut off sharp; while inside the horseshoe there is gradual transition from the unseen to the seen, again. The tremor and rolling are plainly recognized.

Looking at any surface of uniform colour, as a green wall-paper, or a red table-cover, or a mahogany table, the cloud is scarcely to be seen at all: it partakes of the general hue of the field on which it lies, and only reveals itself by the bright lines and gleams of colour at the margin, by the tremor and rolling that belong to them, and by the obliteration of the grain of the wood and minor markings.

Looking at the bright sky, the affected portion of the field of view appears as a faint shadowy curved cloud. The bright lines at its margin are not conspicuous, except when they show gleams of gay colours. The boiling and tremor are well seen.

Looking at a white ceiling in shade, the display is seen perhaps most favourably. The bright lines of the margin contrast with dark lines behind them; the space immediately within the margin is seen to be partly broken up into wedges and angular figures of faint light and shade, especially towards the larger end of the curved cloud, which is receding from the centre of sight and shows a larger pattern in every respect,—larger zigzags, larger wedges, larger boiling, and stronger tremor. Any gleams of colour are well seen.

When the eyes are so directed that part of the cloud is seen against the sky, and part against the dark wall, it may be noticed that the jagged arch appears faintly dark against the sky, and faintly light against the wall; but the part seen against sky is de-

cidedly brighter than the part seen against wall. At the junction between the two, I find great difficulty in recognizing the transition from lighter to darker.

The eyesight thus affected, though wholly blind to boundaries of light and shade, is not disqualified for the reception of light, in quantity. The light is seen, almost unimpaired, though all definition is blurred and blotted out.

But, besides being open to general impressions of light and shade from without, the clouded patch on the field of view has an inherent luminosity of its own. If the observer shuts his eyes and carefully shades them, or (better) retires into a dark room with his eyes open, he sees a faintly luminous curved figure in the dark, brilliantly edged along its serrated outline,—the bright margin supported by a trench of black, and in different places gleaming with red and blue and other colours. The tremor and boiling are beautifully seen (Plate XXV. figs. 1-9).

Meanwhile the disease extends with gradually increasing rapidity, and spreading outwards invades the more distant parts of the field of vision. Still the small end of the curve points ever to an imaginary cynosure at the centre of sight, the rest of the arch sweeping away into outer regions, where the mind has great difficulty in watching its form. Towards the outer extremity, where the zigzag pattern is much larger and less defined, and where the cloud dies away confusedly, as the disease attains its height, the turbulence of motion becomes greatly exalted; the outskirts of the visual area seem to be boiling over with tumultuous light, that may be seen at times to collect itself in a rallying-point here and there, and presently to stream away again along the shore of the seething sea, splendid with large gleams of blue and red and green.

The climax is generally reached in twenty or twenty-five minutes from the first beginning. Then the large arm, having overspread the margin of the field, begins to fade and leave the lower part to recover slowly from the storm. The small arm is the last to perish; it remains in strength while the large arm is dying away; but soon the outward spread carries it in turn to the upper margin of the field, and it there exhibits the same fervour that characterized the career of the larger end. The whole duration of the phenomenon is just half an hour, often with curious exactness.

When the disease is about halfway advanced, I generally observe the rudiments of a fresh attack, beginning nearly where the first began, and sometimes advancing so far as to exhibit its bastioned margin, with rolling and tremor, as though the performance were to be rehearsed from beginning to end (Plate XXV. fig. 9, δ). But there it stops and fades away, unless it arise on the opposite side, when I have known a second attack develope itself immediately after the first.

The sight feels somewhat dazed for ten or fifteen minutes after the final disappearance of the phenomenon.

Throughout the earlier part of this visual derangement I feel no discomfort at all; my faculties are free to observe the phenomena closely and carefully. It is not till near the end, when the boiling is at its height, that the eyes feel oppressed, and the head has a presage that it is going to ache. The headache comes on gradually: it is not

localized in any particular part: it lasts for five or six hours or more, accompanied with slight nausea.

Such is the normal course of an attack of transient Hemiopsia in my case. I will presently mention such abnormal forms as seem to have interest.

Reviewing the nomenclature of the disease, I think we must recognize the inaccuracy and insufficiency of the name 'Hemiopsia' or 'Hemiopia,' used by Brewster and others, especially as the same name has been given, appropriately, to the graver and more permanent half-blindness, in which "the line of demarcation between the sensitive and blind part of the retina is vertical and sharply defined" (Bader, p. 447). I am tempted to look for a single word which shall express the most striking feature of the morbid vision. In Sir John Herschel's account (above, p. 251), it will be seen that he was much struck by the resemblance to a fortified wall "with salient and re-entering angles, bastions, and ravelins;" and writing last year, he speaks of the visual phenomenon as "the 'Fortification Pattern.'" Dr. Fothergill's words (above, p. 254) are, "surrounded with luminous angles, like those of a fortification." Other persons also have habitually used this expression in describing their own experience. I think this similitude may furnish me with the word I seek, and I venture to propose the name 'Teichopsia' (refixes, town-wall, ö445, vision) to represent the bastioned form of transient Hemiopsia which I have been describing, not without a reminiscence of some words of Tennyson's:

"..... as yonder walls
Rose slowly to a music slowly breathed,
A cloud that gathered shape."

Various particulars, which would have burdened the description, I have reserved for consideration here.

Circumstances of the attack.—Want of exercise, sedentary employment, close reading and writing, are the usual antecedents of Teichopsia. It generally comes on while the eyes are engaged with toilsome reading. Several times I have believed the attack to be favoured by bad windy weather, for the reason that different members of my family have been affected on the same day, in such weather, though unaware of the synchronism till afterwards. I am careful to add this last caution, because I have thought (and by reference to the quotation above, page 252, it will be seen that Sir John Herschell entertained the same idea) that an attack might be induced by the mind dwelling on the description or imagination of the thing.

Sudden change of air and living have sometimes seemed to be the exciting cause. On one occasion, some years ago, on going into the country for a winter holiday, I had three or four attacks in the first two days.

Over exercise may bring it on, I believe. It has come on after a long walk before breakfast. It will be remembered that Dr. Wollaston attributes his first attack to a similar cause.

I have been attacked when I have been called early after insufficient sleep. Sometimes the attack has been nocturnal, mingling with a dream, from which I wake and find the spectacle in full fervour. Sometimes, I believe, I have passed through it without waking, for I have been half aware of it in my sleep, and have found the dull headache on me in the morning.

Not unfrequently I have found it impossible to assign any cause for the attack.

Position in the field.—The first spot of blindness never springs up (with me) exactly in the centre of vision. Even when most central; it is recognized as lying a very little to one side or the other; and this slight excentricity determines the side of the field which the disease will occupy in its development. With me, the left side is affected more frequently than the right. The most usual position of origin is 3° or 4° to the left of, and 3° or 4° below, the centre. I remember one case in which the attack began at a much greater distance in the same direction; but I have never had any experience of such a course of the cloud as Sir J. HERSCHEL describes in his paper quoted above (p. 251), coming into view at the extreme left, and gradually extending to the right over the whole field.

Anomalies in the course of the Disease.—In one or two cases, after reaching a certain point of development, the phenomenon has died away without ripening; it has suffered breach of continuity in its walls opposite the natural gap, and then each part has faded separately (Plate XXVI. fig. 3). In one of these cases the disease began at the beginning of a walk before breakfast in summer, and died prematurely as I walked briskly on. In the case above alluded to as having taken origin at an unusual distance below and to the left of the sight-point, the cloud preserved its contour unbroken for an unusual length of time, and took a marked oval shape, until the gradual approach of its wall towards the centre led to an opening on that side, with adhesion of one arm (small-toothed) to the centre, and retreat of the other (large-toothed) towards the periphery of the field. In only one instance have I noticed the small end of the curve refusing allegiance to the centre of sight, and then the course of the phenomenon corresponded to that given in the diagram that accompanies Professor Airy's paper on Hemiopsy.

I believe the small end of the curve is always the upper of the two. It is so in all the cases of which I have kept any record, and I cannot remember any instance of the reverse*.

The shape of the curve has varied considerably in different instances. Sometimes it has been as flat as is represented in Professor Airr's diagram, when the phenomenon has not been well developed in other respects; but in far the greater number of cases it assumes a full horseshoe shape.

When a second attack has followed close upon the first, I have noticed that, besides the flattening of the curve, the salient angles of the margin have been less defined, and the marginal lines of light less clear.

^{*} Since writing these words (1870, Jan. 23) I have had an attack of dextral teichopsia, in which the lower arm had the smaller pattern, and offered rather distant allegiance to the sight-point.

I cannot remember any instance in which the cloud, springing up and spreading on one side of the field, has ever transgressed the vertical median line. I believe it has never done so, but I cannot speak positively on the point. (In Sir John Herschel's case it is distinctly stated that the shadowy intruder swept over the whole field from left to right; and Tyrrell speaks of instances in which the blindness "increases so as to extend over the whole field of vision.")

Colour.—When viewed in the dark, the general hue of the self-luminous cloud is yellowish-white. The casual gleams with which it is adorned are, in order of frequency, red and blue, yellow, green, orange. They seem to belong to the bright lines of the margin, but are less definite, and appear sometimes to spread over a wider space; but it is by no means easy to determine the exact relations of the various tracts of light and shade in the turbulence and trembling that prevail; especially when it is borne in mind that in order to do so the attention must leave the centre of sight and by effort of will transfer itself to a point 20° or 30° or 40° removed from the centre.

Sequelæ.—The headache has been very slight in some cases; but generally is very oppressive, with some degree of "eyeball pain." The nausea, usually slight, was sufficient to produce vomiting on one occasion. I have never experienced any affection of speech with or after these attacks. But lately they have been followed by a slight disturbance of hearing, in which external sounds gave rise to a momentary 'rumbling' in my ears.

I have once or twice tried to relieve the headache by the plan which M. Dufour recommends—abundant application of cold water to head and face,—but without success. The action of an emetic in no way prevented the cephalalgia. Indeed I have little reason to regard any gastric derangement as the cause of the affection in my case; and though the stomach is secondarily affected, yet the primary disease is not easily reached by simply acting on the stomach.

In one case (among my friends) with which I am well acquainted, these attacks have been very frequent from an early age till middle life. The bastioned outline is a striking feature in this case; but I am not able to say whether the blindness does or does not transgress the median vertical line of the field of view. It is always spoken of as 'half-blindness.' Formerly the attendant headache used to be very severe, accompanied with prolonged vomiting. Latterly the visual affection has been more oppressive than the headache, and its advent greatly dreaded. Sometimes the speech is affected, and the memory at the same time; on one occasion the mouth was seen to be drawn to one side. The cause has been easily recognized in previous anxiety and mental distress, trouble-some letter-writing, and the like.

In another case the phenomena are much less definite. The first sign of the approach of an attack is a half-puzzled suspicion that the eye does not see all it ought, and it requires some gazing at surrounding objects to settle the doubt. Once it began with

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singular minuteness; the eyes and hands were engaged in scaling-off a certain distance from a fine linear mark, and in bringing the zero of the scale to coincide with the linear mark the zero became invisible just at the moment when the two lines were on the point of coinciding. Again and again the trial was made, ineffectually, till the nature of the failure was recognized in the gradual development of the blindness. The spot of origin must have been exactly central. In this case there is no definite serrated margin, no colour, no curve, nothing of which a picture can be made. The obscurity gathers like a cloudy film or gauze over the field, oppressive to the eyes, and accompanied with headache and nausea, and passes away after a doubtful period, leaving the impression that it is caused by disorder of the stomach. To this case the name Teichopsia is quite inapplicable; but the spread of the blindness from a small central spot, its extension over a great part of the field, and its final disappearance, establish it as a distinct variety of the same affection.

In yet a third case which I have recently met with, the blindness is sometimes brought on by looking at a striped wall-paper or a striped dress. The appearance before the eyes is described as zigzag, wavy, quivering, without colour. The first attack, in adult age, was followed by partial paralysis of one side; and later attacks have almost always had a sequel of defective speech, and tingling at the tip of the tongue, at the tip of the nose, and in the fingers and thumb.

I think I have accumulated evidence enough in the foregoing pages to establish the fact that there is a distinct form of transient hemiopsia, presenting the following main characteristics:—

- 1. Dependence on mental anxiety, bodily exhaustion, overwork to the eyes, gastric derangement, want of exercise.
 - 2. Origin from a small spot near the centre of vision.
 - 3. Orderly outward spread from the original spot.
 - 4. Blindness to boundaries, but not to general impressions of light and colour.
 - 5. Luminosity in the dark.
 - 6. Bright bastioned margin, with gleams of various colours.
 - 7. Tremor and 'boiling.'
 - 8. Gradual occupation of one (lateral) half of the field of view.
 - 9. Gradual recovery of clear vision in rear of the outward-spreading cloud.
 - 10. Disappearance of the phenomenon after about half an hour.
- 11. Sequelæ: headache and nausea, and sometimes affection of speech and hearing, and even an approach to hemiplegia.

As to the actual seat of the visual derangement, all the facts of the case are in support

of Dr. Wollaston's conclusion, that it is in the brain. The point that most distinctly bears upon this question is the exact agreement of the two eyes in the nature, extent, and degree of their affection.

Closing either eye, the scope of the other eye is blurred by the selfsame bastioned cloud*; and the effort of the will is powerless to disregard it and see through it.

The sight of both eyes being thus equally affected, we must conclude, assuming the semidecussation of the optic nerves at the chiasma, that the seat of the affection must lie at some point behind the chiasma of these nerves.

The main division (that seems to offer itself) into dextral and sinistral teichopsia will correspond then to the distinction between right and left permanent hemiopsia, and will depend upon temporary affection of the *left* or *right* optic tract, or its origin in the corresponding optic thalamus

The circumstances which determine the attack, whether those of bodily exhaustion, or mental fatigue and distress, or gastric detangement, all seem to me more likely to affect the inner integral parts of the brain than such outlying dependencies as the optic tracts, and lead me to suppose that the affection is in the former rather than in the latter. The partial paralysis, the loss of speech and of memory, and the derangement of hearing, that sometimes follow an attack of teichopsia, all point to the same conclusion. But, in truth, the radical connexions of the optic tracts seem to be so wide, that it is impossible at present to do more than guess at the locus morbi. Such cases as Sir John Herschel's, where the cloud passed over the whole field from left to right, can only be explained by supposing the disturbance to lie in some region of the brain where the opposite halves are in contact

Finally, as to the nature of the local mischief:—Is it a temporary suspension of function, propagated by contiguity, among the nerve-cells of the visual sensorium (wherever that may be), due to vascular congestion, and relieved by the relief of that congestion? Does the headache, following close upon the departure of the morbid vision, tell of the further propagation of the nervous disturbance into parts of the brain where disturbance is ache, as in the visual tract disturbance is abnormal sensation of light? And the detriment to speech and hearing that has occasionally been noticed, does it mean extension of the same disturbance still further into the regions of brain-substance appropriate to those functions?

The phenomena are so definite and so localized, and their course is so regular, that we can hardly avoid the conviction that their cause is equally definite and equally localized; and it is difficult to admit so vague an agent as nervous sympathy with gastric derangement, except as acting through the medium of some secondary local manifestation in the brain.

^{*} This is invariably the case with myself and with most of those who have noted these phenomena; but while preparing these pages for the press (May 12th, 1870) I have received a note from Sir John Herschel, with the following postscript.—"On the 16th ult., at waking, I found the 'Fortification pattern' certainly in my left eye only, and much more vivid with the eye open and looking at paper than when closed."

Regarded merely as a disease, Teichopsia, though by no means unimportant, may be thought hardly deserving of the attention of scientific men; but regarded as a veritable 'Photograph' of a morbid process going on in the brain, its interest and importance cannot be too strongly insisted upon.

In conclusion, I regret to be obliged to leave so much doubt upon so many points of the subject I have been dealing with. As more evidence arises, and more systematic observations are gathered, I hope these doubts may be removed. Meanwhile our duty is to collect and record facts, in confidence that they will arrange themselves into a theory sooner or later. No two cases of this disease present exactly the same features; every one is an illustration of the rest; and by the accumulation and comparison of accurate records we may hope that the transition from facts isolated to facts linked by the clue of theory will be soon attained.

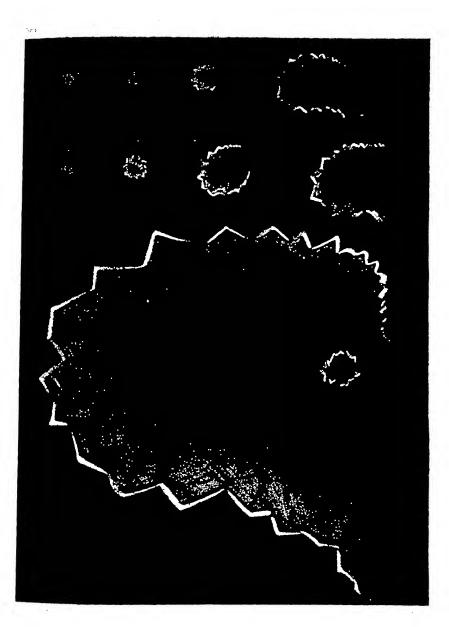
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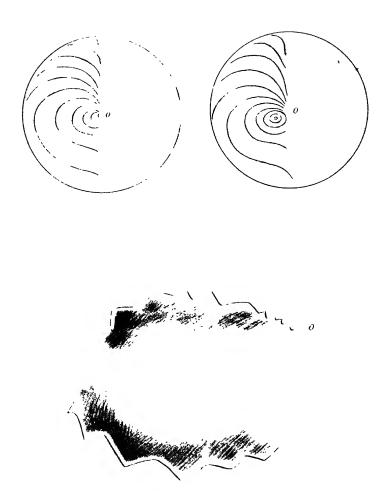
PLATE XXV.

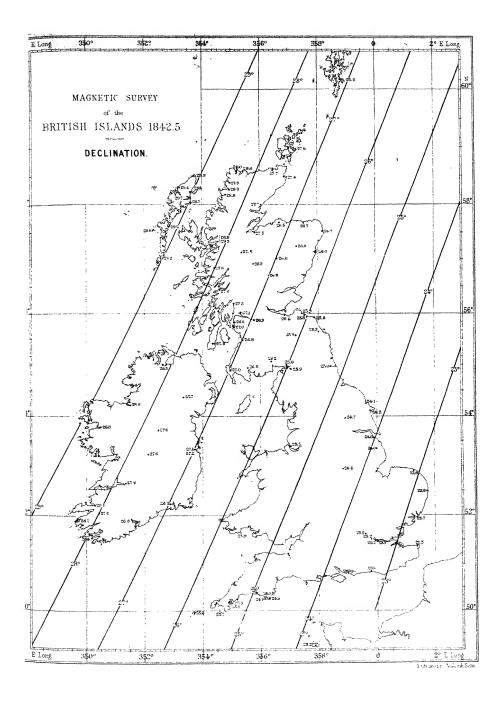
- Figs. 1-4. Early stages of sinistral Teichopsia (see p. 256) beginning close to the sight-point, as seen in the dark. The letter O marks the sight-point in every figure.
- Figs. 5-8. A similar series of the early stages of sinistral Teichopsia beginning a few degrees below and to the left of the sight-point.
- Fig. 9. Sinistral Teichopsia fully developed. δ. Beginning of a secondary attack, which never attains full development unless it arise on the opposite side

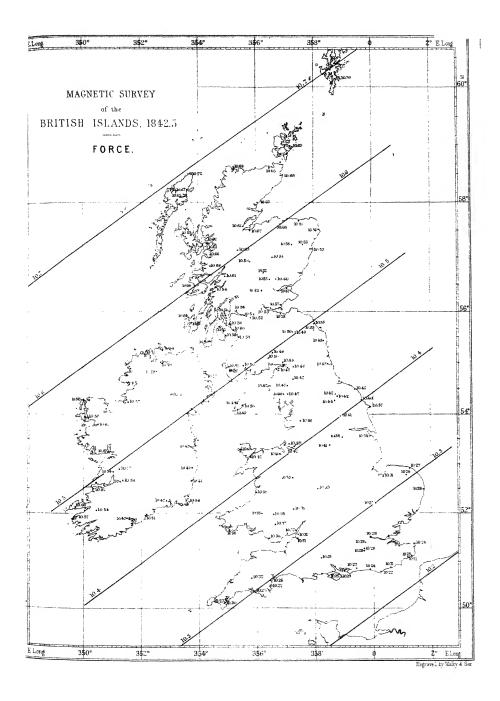
PLATE XXVI.

- Fig. 1. Diagram to show the progress of the attack in any given case of sinistral Teichopsia beginning close to the sight-point but a little to the left. The successive curves denote the successive stages of the attack and positions of the arch, not transgressing the median vertical line.
- Fig. 2. Similar to fig. 1, for a case of sinistral Terchopsia beginning some distance below and to the left of the sight-point.
- Fig. 3. Teichopsia, fading prematurely, losing continuity opposite the natural gap in its wall, and terminating by resolution.









XIV. Contributions to Terrestrial Magnetism.—No. XII. The Magnetic Survey of the British Islands, reduced to the Epoch 1842.5. By General Sir Edward Sabine, K.C.B., President of the Royal Society.

Received June 15,-Read June 16, 1870.

THE Magnetic Survey of the British Islands originated with a few persons interested in that branch of experimental science who attended the third Meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, held at Cambridge in June 1833.

On his return to Dublin from attendance at that Meeting, Dr. Humphry Lloyd, the present Provost of Trinity College, Dublin, who was then its Professor of Natural Philosophy, proposed to myself, then serving on the Staff of the Army in Ireland, to unite with him in an endeavour to realize such an undertaking, by a commencement which should be at first limited to Ireland. Fortunately I had with me at the time the instruments which I had employed for similar purposes in several arctic and equatorial voyages; and being then quartered in the South-West District of Ireland, I found it not incompatible with my military duties to undertake the Southern portion of the island, whilst Professor Lloyd occupied himself in the Northern portion. Our observations were continued at intervals throughout 1834 and until the autumn of 1835, in the summer of which year we were joined by Captain James Clark Ross, R.N., who had been associated with me in similar undertakings in Arctic countries.

A provisional report of our operations, drawn up by Professor LLOYD, was presented to the British Association assembled in Dublin in 1835, and was printed in 1836 in the 4th volume of the Reports of the Association.

Mr. Robert Were Fox, who was present at the Dublin Meeting of the Association in 1835, brought with him an apparatus for magnetic observation on a new construction of his own invention, which, when the Meeting terminated, he employed in the course of a tour in the West and North of Ireland, the results of which were incorporated in Professor Lloyd's report adverted to in the last paragragh.

In 1836, having obtained two months' leave of absence from military duties in Ireland, I employed them in extending the Survey to twenty-seven stations in Scotland, well distributed over that country, and forming the basis of a memoir on the Scottish Isoclinal and Isodynamic Lines, which was printed in the fifth volume of the Reports of the Association, published in 1837.

In the summer of 1837 Professor LLOYD commenced the magnetic survey of England by observations at fourteen stations, principally in the midland and southern districts; and in the same summer Professor John Phillips, who as one of the Secretaries of the

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British Association had participated in the early interest which had originated at the Meetings of the Association, visited and observed at twenty-four stations, chiefly in the north of England. In the same summer Mr. Fox observed at twenty stations in the north of England and south of Scotland; and in the summer of 1838 at eight additional stations in the south of England. In the same years (1837 and 1838) Captain James Ross employed himself almost unremittingly in magnetic observation, visiting for the purpose fifty-eight stations, extending over England, Ireland, and Scotland generally; whilst in the same years (1837 and 1838) my own observations comprehended twenty-two stations, distributed for the most part round the coast of England and Wales, and extending into Ireland and Scotland, so as to effect a more perfect connexion of the different Lines. A general provisional account of the results which had been thus obtained was drawn up by myself at the request of my colleagues, and was printed in 1839 in the 7th volume of the Reports of the British Association.

In the year 1856, twenty years having elapsed since the proceedings which have been thus referred to, the General Committee of the British Association deemed it expedient that the Survey should be resumed, partly with a view of adding other stations to those which had been included in the earlier operations, and partly for the purpose of repeating the observations at some of the earlier stations, with the view of examining the amounts of secular change which might appear to have taken place in the interval. five persons who had taken part in the operations of 1835-38 were requested by the General Committee to continue their services, with the addition of Mr. John Welsh, Superintendent of the Magnetic Establishment at Kew. I was not myself present at the Cheltenham Meeting of the British Association in 1856 when the resolution was passed, requesting that a repetition of the survey of 1837 should be made by the same persons by whom the earlier survey had been accomplished; but on my return to England in 1856, finding my own name standing first in the list of the Committee by whom the work was to be accomplished, I lost no time in proposing to my colleagues such arrangements as seemed suitable for the accomplishment of the object which the Association had in view. The survey of the Scottish portion of the British Islands was entrusted to the very able hands of Mr. Welsh: who, in the summer and autumn of 1857, determined the Magnetic Elements at several stations in the Interior and on the East Coast of Scotland; and in the same season of the following year, extended the Survey to the West Coast, the Hebrides, and the Orkney and Shetland Islands. This work was performed with all Mr. Welsh's wonted accuracy and completeness; and with a devotion which was but too great, for the exposure to inclement weather acting on a previous delicacy of health proved the immediate occasion of the illness which at last terminated fatally. Science lost in him not only a zealous and accomplished worker, but one of rare gifts and qualities, affording yet higher promise of usefulness, if his had been a prolonged life. A provisional account of the results of Mr. Welsh's operations, drawn up by Mr. Balfour STEWART, his successor in the superintendence of the Magnetic Observatory at Kew, was printed in the Report of the Aberdeen Meeting of the British Association in 1859.

There was reason to hope that the Irish portion of the Survey would be repeated by Professor LLOYD, with the aid of other members of the Royal Irish Academy, who proposed that, when made, it should be printed in the Transactions of that Academy.

For some time I cherished the hope that the English Survey would be accomplished, as before, by the joint labours of the original observers; and accordingly I commenced my share of the work in the summer of 1858; but as time advanced, it became evident that circumstances of health and the pressure of other employments and duties stood in the way of the hoped for combined operation. My own avocations would not permit me to devote to this object so much time consecutively as would have been required for its accomplishment in a single year; but by employing in it portions of the summers of 1858, 1859, 1860, 1861, and 1862, I obtained observations for the determination of the isodynamic and isoclinal lines at twenty-four well-distributed stations. The Declination was supplied for several points on the coasts of the United Kingdom by Captain FREDERIC JOHN EVANS, R.N., F.R.S., from observations made by several naval officers between the years 1855 and 1861. A general notice of the results thus obtained was printed in the volume of the British Association Reports for 1861, together with the details of my own observations.

Having premised this general historical statement I proceed to a more circumstantial notice of some points of detail.

Corrections employed for secular change.

A. Declination.—The observations of the Declination comprised in the Survey supply six stations in Scotland at which that element was determined with suitable accuracy, at an interval in each case of ninetcen or twenty years. The observers in all these instances were Captain James Ross at the earlier date, i. e. in 1838.5, and Mr. Welsh at the later date, i. e. 1857.5 or 1858.5. The details are as follows:—

Stations.	Lat. N.	Long. E.	Observer.	Date.	Delination observed.	Interval.	Average annual decrease.	Mean secular change.
Lerwick	60 09 58 59	358 53 357 02	Ross. Welsh. Ross. Welsh.	1838-5 1858-5 1838-5 1858-5	27 09 w. 25 18 w. 27 47 w. 26 17 w.	years. } 20 } 20	5·5 4·5	
Wick	58 25 57 58	356 55 356 03	Ross. Welsh. Ross. Welsh.	1838-5 1858-5 1838-5 1858-5	27 41 w. 26 04 w. 27 54 w. 26 15 w.	20 20	4·9 5·0	5.3
Inverness	57 28 57 09	355 49 357 55	Ross. Welsh. Ross. Welsh.	1838·5 1857·5 1838·5 1857·5	27 39 w. 25 57 w. 26 21 w. 24 36 w.	} 19 } 19	6·4 5·5	

In the Philosophical Transactions for 1863, Art. XII., p. 291, it is shown that, at the Kew Magnetic Observatory (lat. 51° 29' N., long. 359° 42' E.), the average rate of diminution of the Westerly Declination in 1858–59 was 6'.8 yearly (the decrease having been a little less in the years immediately preceding 1858, and a little more in the years

immediately following that epech). We may infer, consequently, that the annual decrease of the Declination was somewhat greater in the south-east of England, than it was at the same period in Scotland: and we find it stated by Dr. LLOYD, in vol. i. page 80 of the Magnetical Observations at Trinity College in Dublin, that in the years 1840 to 1843 the rate of decrease in Dublin was about 6'9.

In conformity with these premises, the secular change of the Declination, at the Epoch of 1842.5 to which the observations of the British Survey are referred, has been assumed to have been an annual decrease of West Declination of approximately 5.6 in Scotland and the north of England, increasing to 6.2 in the middle and southern part of England, and to 6.9 in Ireland.

B. Inclination.—In Scotland and the adjacent islands the survey supplies seventeen stations at which observations of the Inclination were made at intervals of nineteen years and upwards. They are brought together in the following Table.

Station.	Lat. N.	Long. E.	Observer.	Date.	Inclination observed.	Interval.	Annual secular decrease.
Lerwick	6 ů o ý	358 53	Sabine. Ross. Welsh.	1818·5 1838·5 1858·5	74 22 73 45 73 13	years. 20 20	1·85 } 1·72
Kirkwall	59 00	357 02	Ross. Welsh.	1838·5 1858·5	73 20 72 42	20	1.90
Wick	58 24	356 55	Ross. Weish.	1838·5 1858·5	73 20 72 41	20	1.95
Golspie	57 58	356 03	Sabine. Ross. Welsh.	1836·5 1838·5 1858·5	72 56 73 04 72 26	21	1.62
Inverness	57 28	355 49	Sabine. Ross. Welsh.	1836·5 1838·5 1857·5	72 46 72 46 72 08	20	1-90
Melrose	55 35	357 16	Sabine. Fox. Welsh.	1836·5 1837·5 1857·5	71 37 71 38 70 55	20.5	2.07
Berwick	55 45	358 00	Ross. Welsh.	1838·5 1857·5	71 42 70 55	19	2-47
Alford	57 13	357 15	Sabine. Welsh.	1836·5 1857·5	72 22 71 46	21	1.71
Fort Augustus .	57 08	355 20	Sabine. Welsh.	1836-5 1857-5	72 40 72 03	21	1.76
Edinburgh	55 57	356 49	Sabine. Fox. Welsh.	1836·5 1837·5 1857·5	71 50 71 50 71 11	20.5	1.92
Gretna	55 01	356 56	Fox. Welsh.	1837·5 1857·5	71 29 70 46	20	2-15
Braemar	57 01	356 35	Sabine. Welsh.	1836·5 1857·5	72 14 71 31	21	2.05
Jordanhill	55 54	355 3 9	Sabine.	1838·5 1853·5	72 14 71 30	21	2-10
Campbelton	55 23	354 22	Sabine. Welsh.	1836·5 1857·5	71 56 71 14	21	2-00
Helensburgh	56 00	355 19	Sabine. Welsh.	1836·5 1857·5	72 17 71 30	21	2.24
Cumbray	55 48	355 08	Sabine. Welsh.	1836·5 1857·5	72 01 71 29	} 21	1.52
Glasgow	55 51	355 46	Sabine. Fox. Welsh.	1836·5 1837·5 1857·5	72 02 72 05 71 26	20.5	1.83

The mean secular change shown by this Table is an annual diminution of 1'94, or approximately 2'0; which has been accordingly employed in the reduction to the mean epoch (1842.5) of all the observations at the Scotch Stations.

In England the number of stations at which we have determinations of the Inclination at intervals of considerable duration (within the limits of the time comprehended by the survey) are much fewer, but they are sufficient to supply a satisfactory approximation to the amount of the secular change for the short intervals for which the corrections are required. On the eastern side of England we have five localities, at all of which the Inclination was observed at intervals comprehending from 21.5 to 24 years. These, with their respective geographical positions and the resulting annual decrease of the Inclination at each, are shown in the following Table, viz.:—

Stations.	Lat. N.	Long. E.	Observer.	Date.	Inclination observed.	Interval.	Annual secular change.
Scarborough Cromer Lowestoft Cambridge	54 17 52 56 52 28 52 13 51 23	359 37 1 19 1 56 0 07	Phillips. Ross. Sabine. Ross. Sabine. Ross. Sabine. Lloyd. Sabine. Sabine. Ross. Sabine.	1837-5 1838-5 1859-5 1838-5 1861-5 1838-5 1861-5 1860-5 1837-5 1838-5 1860-5	70 42 70 43 69 59 69 46 68 55 69 29 68 39 69 42 68 42 69 03 68 57 68 06	years. 21·5 23·0 23·0 24·0 22·5	2·23 2·22 2·17 2·50 2·40

On the western side of England we have four stations at which the Inclination was observed at nearly similar intervals; these are:—

Stations.	Lat. N.	Long. E.	Observer.	Date.	Inclination observed.	Interval.	Annual secular change.
Stackpole Court	51 38	35Š 05	Ross.	1837·5 1860·5	69 56 68 58	years. 23.0	ź ·52
Lew Trenchard	50 40	355 50	Sabine.	1838·5 1859·5	69 19 68 18	21.0	2.90
Falmouth	50 09	354 54	Ross. Sabine. Fox. Sabine.	1837·5 1838·5 1838·5 1859·5	69 16 69 12 69 14 68 08	21.5	3.07
Plymouth	50 22	355 51	Ross. Sabine.	1837·5 1859·5	69 06 68 06	} 22·0	2.73

We have, further, one English station, viz. Kew, where the secular change of the Inclination has been the subject of a very careful and persistent inquiry for a much longer period (Proceedings of the Royal Society, vol. xi. pp. 144-162). In accordance with that discussion, we may safely regard an annual decrease of 2'7 as approximately

applicable at Kew to the whole interval from 1834 to 1861. And from all these results we may infer the existence of a small but tolerably well-assured progressive augmentation in the amount of the secular change of the Inclination,—1°, with a diminishing latitude, and 2°, with an increasing westerly position.

In the corrections to the mean epoch of 1842.5 I have employed in Scotland an annual decrease of 2'.0. In England, I have increased this rate with progressively diminishing latitude, on the eastern side to 2'.65 in 51° 30', and on the western side to 2'.85 in lat. 50° 30'. In Ireland I have taken 2'.3 in lat. 55°, increasing to 2'.8 in lat. 51°.

C. Force.—In the determinations of the Intensity of the Magnetic Force, the Kew Observatory has been regarded as supplying the fundamental station of the British Survey. From the Philosophical Transactions, 1863, Art. XII. p. 302, we may assume the total force at Kew in absolute measure (British units), at the definite epoch of July 1, 1860, to have been 10·302; subject to an annual increase from secular change of ·00125, as derived from the Kew Observations between April 1857 (when the regular series of absolute determinations at that observatory commenced) and March 1862. In accordance with these values the total force at Kew at the mean epoch (1842·5), for which the present maps are constructed, is taken as 10·280, and the corrections applied to the several determinations to reduce them to the mean epoch are proportional to an annual increase of ·00125.

The maps of the three magnetic elements which accompany this paper have been prepared at the Hydrographic Office, with the sanction of Admiral RICHARDS, under the superintendence of Captain FREDERICK JOHN EVANS, R.N.

The Stations are arranged in the Table in order of latitude; the initials in the column of Observers denote:—L, Professor Humphry Lloyd; F, Mr. Robert Were Fox; R, Sir James Clark Ross; P, Professor John Phillips; W, Mr. John Welsh; and S, Sir Edward Saline. The Naval Officers whose Declinations have been employed are Captains Evans, Otter, Bedford (B^a), Beechey (B), Cox (C^a), Church (C^b), Williams (W^a), Thomas and Aldridge (who are distinguished in the Table by their initials).

						Declinati	on.		Inclinat	on.		Force	
Stations.	Lat. N.	Long. E.	Ob- server.	Date.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected : degrees and decimals,	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected: degrees and decimals.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected.
Lerwick	60 o <u>é</u>	358 53	S. R. W.	1818-5 1838-5 1858-5	27 09 25 18	-0 22 +1 30	26 8 26 8 26 8	74 22 73 45 73 13	-48 -8 +32	73 6 73 6 73 6 73 7	10·71 10·65 10·74	+·03 	10-74 10-65 10-72
Kirkwall	59 00	357 02	∤R. W.	1838 5 1858 5	27 47 26 17	-0 22		73 20 72 42	- 8 +32	73.2 73.2	10-67 10-72	+01	10-68
Stromness	58 57	356 44	w.	1858-5	20 17		21.03	72 46	+32	73.3	1072	- 02	
Thurso	58 35	356 28	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{A}_{\cdot} \\ \mathbf{W}_{\cdot} \end{array} \right\}$	1856·5 1858 5	26 08 26 30	$+1 18 \\ +1 30$	27.4	72 33	+32	73 1	10 67	02	10.65
Loch Eribol	58 34	355 20	0.	1856 5	27 17	+1 18	28 6		7-02				
Durness		355 16	W.	1858-5	27 30 28 25	+1 30	29.0	72 50 72 49	+32	73·4 73·4	10:70 10:74	-·02 -·02	10-68 10-72
Cross	1	353 43	fR.	1858 5 1838-5	28 23	+130 -022	29.9	73 20	+32	7207	1074	02	1072
Wick	1	356 55	W. ;	1858 5	26 04	+1 30	27.6 } 27.4	72 41	+32	732 702	10.70	02	10-68
Luxford Carloway		354 56 353 13	0.	1846·5 1856 5	27 34 28 05	+0 22 +1 18	27·9 29·4						
Stornoway	58 15	353 37	W.	1858 5	27 56	+1 30	29.4	72 33	+32	73.1	10.69	02	10-67
Gowan		354 57		1846.5	27 58 27 59	+0 22	28.6] as a	•					
Loch Inver		354 48	W.	1858:5	27 30	+1 30	29.0 28 8	72 36	+32	73 1			
Callinish Loch Shell				1858 5 1856 5	28 09 27 24	$+130 \\ +118$	29 7 28 7	72 34	+32	73-1	10-67	02	10-65
Golspie			{ 8. ;	1836:5 1838:5	27 55	-0 22	27.6) 27.7	72 56 73 04	-12 - 8	$\begin{bmatrix} 72.7 \\ 72.9 \\ 72.9 \end{bmatrix}$ 72.9	10.65	+.01	10.66] 10-6
Elgm	57 39	356 41		1858.5 1857:5	26 15 25 07	$+130 \\ +124$	27.8 } 27.7 26.5	72 26 72 08	$^{+32}_{+30}$	73·0 J 72·6	10.49	- 02	10-67 5
Banff		357 29	W.	1557.5	25 17	1 24	26 7	71 57	+30	725	10.60	-02	10.58
Gordon Castle		356 51 352 52		1836.5	07 20			72 41	-12	72.5	10-65	+.01	10-66
Loch Maddy Dingwall		355 35	W.	1859 5 : 1858 5	. 27 38	+1 35	29 2	72 25	+32	73 0	10.63	02	10.61
Peterhead	57 31	358 14	W.	1857.5	25 17	+124	26 7	71 55	+30	72-4	10.58	03	10.56
Shillay	37 31	352 18	0	1859·5	27 15	+1 35	28 8	72 46	-12	7201	10.66	+01	
Inverness	57 28	355 49	R.	1838-5	27 59	-0 22	27.61	72 46	- 8	72.6 726	10-67	1	10-67
Portree	57 96	353 48		1857·5 1858·5	25 59	+1 24	27.4 5 27.3	72 08	+30 +32	72·6 J 72·6	10-67	-02	10-59
Rhynie	57 20	357 10	8.	1836 5		1		72 26	-12	72.2			1
Balmacarra	57 17	354 21		1858-5	27 33	+1 30	29-1	72 13	+32	728	10.63	- 02	10-61
Kyleakin	57 16	354 16	{ w. ∃	1856·5 1858·5	27 29	+1 18	28 8	72 11	+32	72.7	10.64	- 02	10-62
Broadford	57 15	354 09	W	1858 5	*****			72 16	+32	72.8	10 68 10 55	·02	10·66 10·53
Kintore Loch Slapin			W.	1857:5 1 1836:5 1				71 37 73 02	$+30 \\ -12$	72·1 72·8	10.71	+.01	10 72
Loch Scavig	57 14	353 53	S.	1836 5				73 05	-12	72.9	,		
Alford	57 13	357 15	{ 8. W.	1836·5	24 36	+1 24	26 0	72 22 71 46	$-12 \\ +30$	$\begin{bmatrix} 72.2 \\ 72.3 \end{bmatrix}$ 72.2	10.57	+01	10-58
Aberdeen	57 00	357 55	R.	1838 5	26 21	-0 22	$260 \ 259$ 260				10.55		10-53
	1	001 00	\ W.	1857.5	24 31	+1 24	25 9 7 200	71 49 72 40	+30 -12	72·3 72·5 \ 72·5	10.54	02∫	,
Fort Augustus	1	355 20	{ S. W.	1836·5 1857·5	26 04	+1 24	27.5	72 03	+30	72 6 72.5	10 65	02	10.63
Barra Sound	1	352 37	`0.	1861-5	27 27	+1 46	29 2	72 14	-12	720) 720	10-55	+017	
Braemar	57 01	356 35	{ S. W	1833 5 1857 5	25 09	+1 24	26-6	71 31	+30	720 120	10.59	+ 02	10.56
Dalwhinnie	56 56	855 43	W.	1857.5	25 55	+1 24	26 3	71 40	+30	72.2	10 60	02	10.58
Corpach Pitlochry	56 42	354 52 356 17	W. W.	1857.5 1857.5	26 22 25 23	$+124 \\ +124$	27 8 26 8	71 53 71 35	+30 +30	72·4 72·1	10·70 10·54	- 02 - 02	10.52
Topermorie	156 39	353 58	w.	1858 5		7124					10.66	02	10-64
Glencoe Glenmorven	56 39	354 53 354 02	w.	1836 5 1858-5				72 17 72 02	-12 +32	72·1 72·6	10-60	+.01	10-61
Biairgowrie	56 36	356 42	8.	1836-5				71 55	-12	71-7	10.59	+.01	10.60
Dunkeld	56 35	356 27	R.	1838-5				72 23	- 8	722	10 55		10.55
Artornish Castle Duart	56 31	354 53 354 15	8. S.	1836·5 1836·5				72 43 72 15	-12 -12	72 5 72·1			
Oban	56 26	354 33		1857 5	26 12	+1 24	27-6	71 30	+30	72.0	10.56	02	10.54

	Lat. N.	Long. E.	Ob-										
7			server.	Date.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected : degrees and decimals.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected: degrees and decimals.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected.
	56 25	357 05	8.	1836-5	6 /			73 17	-12	72·1 °	10.56	+*01	10:57
	56 22 56 15	356 10 354 56	S. F.	1859·5 1837·5	•••••			71 24 72 07	+34	72·0 72·0	10-63	02	10-61
	56 13	355 20	F.	1837.5				72 15	-10	72.1			
Loch Goil Head	56 10	355 06	W.	1857 5	25 52	+1 24	27-3	71 17	+30	71.8	10-53	02	10.51
Kirkaldy	56 07	357 00	8.	1836.5				72 11 72 08	-12 -12	72·0 71·9	10-56	+-01	10-57
Loch Gilphead Tarbert	56 09	354 39 356 11	8. W.	1836-5 1857-5				71 34	+30	72-1	10.55	02	10 53
		355 19	18.	1836-5				72 01	-12	71.8 72.0 71.9	10.54	+-01	10.55 10.54
Helensburgh			w.	1857-5				71 30	+30	72.0 5	10·54 10·58	02	10.02
	56 00 56 00	354 33 357 31	W. T.	1857·5 1856·5	26 30 24 36	$+124 \\ +118$	27·9 25·9	71 26	+30	71.9	10.59		10-56
Broxburn Linlithgow		356 23	F.	1837.5	24 00	71 10	200	71 59	-10	71.8			
1			fB.	1836 5				71 50	-12	71-6	10.51	+.01	10-52
Edinburgh	55 58	356 49	F. W.	1837-5	94 50	11 20	26.4	71 50 71 11	-10 +31	71.7 71.7	10 56	02	10-54
Loch Ridan	55 57	354 50	S.	1858·5 1836·5	24 56	+1 30	26.4	72 17	-12	72.1	10.56	02	10-54)
Fast Castle	55 55	357 36	T.	1856.5	24 29	+1 18	25.8						
St. Abbs	55 55	357 52	T.	1856 5	24 28	+1 18	25.8				10.74		
Jordanhill	55 54	355 39	{ R. S.	1838 5 1838 5							10·52 10·54	+01	10-53 10-54
			(8.	1836-5				72 02	- 12	71-87	10-51	+01	10-52
Glasgow	55 51	355 46	{ F.	1837.5				72 05	-10	71.9 71.9			
	55 52	353 52	W.	1857 5	25 28	+1 24	26.9	71 26 71 14	+30 +32	71·9 J 71·8	10 66	02	10.64
	55 48	355 08	w.	1858 5 1857 5	25 14	+1 24	26.6	71 33	+30	72-1	10 00	02	
Bridgend		353 44	W.	1858 5				71 15	+32	718	10.68	- 02	10 66
Cumbray	55 48	355 08	{S.	1836 5			27.0	72 01 71 29	-12 +30	71.8 72.0 71.9	10.57	+ 01	10.58
1	1		} W. R.	1857 5 1838 5	25 37	+1 24	27.0	71 42	- 8	71.6	10.54	+ 01	10-55
i i	55 45	358 00	W.	1857.5				70 55	+30	71.4 71.3			
	55 43	356 20	w.	1857 5				70 56	+30	71.4	10.51	1.01	10.55
	55 42	354 43 353 50	S. W.	1836·5 1858·5				72 23 71 04	$-12 \\ +32$	72·2 71 6	10.54	+-01	10-55
	55 39	355 13	w.	1858-5				71 14	+32	71.8	10.62	- 02	10.60
1	55 35	357 59	1*	1842-5	25 27		25.5	2	*****	22.72	22.22		22222
HARDESCOUNT	30 00	00, 00	W.	1857·5 1836·5	23 56	+1 24	25.3	70 50 71 37	+30 -12	71.3	10·55 10·49	(12 +-01	10-53 10-50
Melrose	55 35	357 16	{ S. F.	1837-5			·····	71 38	-10	71.5 71.4	1043		
	- 1		W.	1857.5	24 27	+1 24	25.9	70 55	+30	71-4		111111	
	55 34	357 21	8.	1836-5				71 34 71 06	-12	71·4 71·6	10 48 10 60	+-01	10·49 10·58
Lamlash	55 98	354 55 355 22	W. W.	1857-5 1857-5	25 26	+1 24	26.8	71 06 71 06	+30	71.6	10.55	- 02	10:53
Aluwick Castle	55 25	358 18	s.	1838-5				71 23	8	71:3	10.44	+01	10.45
Campbelton		354 22	JS.	1836 5				71 56	-12	71.7 71.7	10 57	+-01	10 58
Moffat	1	356 33	l₩. F.	1857·5 1837·5	26 24	+1 24	27.8	71 14 71 40	+30	71.7			
Loch Swilly	35 17	352 33	Bd.	1855 5	27 01	+1 30	28.3						
Carn	55 15 [352 45	L.	1834.5				72 01	<u>–19</u>	71-7	10.63	+01	10-64
Jardine Hall	55 10	356 36 358 07	S. F.	1859·5 1837·5				70 44	+34	71·3 71·1	10.50	02	10 48
Belsay Dumfries	55 05	356 24	W.	1857-5	24 47	+1 24	26.2	70 44	+30	71.2	10-52	- 02	10.50
Dumfries Cushendal	55 04	353 55	F.	1835.5				72 00	-14	71.8			
Gretna		356 56	{ F. W.	1837-5	92 22		25.0	71 29 70 46	-10	71·3 71·3 71·9	10.51	02	10:49
Londonderry	1	352 36	R.	1857·5 1839·5	23 33 28 47	+1 24	28.5	72 02	+30	71.9	10-58	102	10.49
Calgroff		356 00	R.	1838-5	20 4			71 36	- 8	71.5			
W			P.	1837-5				71 18	-10	71.1	10.45	+01	10.45
Newcastle	91 98	358 24	S. R.	1838·5 1838·5				71 09 71 13	- 8	71.0 71.1	10 43	+01	10-45
	54 56	355 32	W.	1857-5	25 10	+1 24	26.6	70 51	+30	71.4	10.52	- 02	10 50
Loch Ryan	54 55	355 01	S.	1836-5				71 43	-12	71-5	10 50	+01	10.51
Stranraer		354 58	W.	1857·5 1838·5	25 38	+1 24	27-0	70 55 71 24	$^{+30}_{-8}$	71.4	10·52 10·45	+01	10:50
Stonehouse		357 16	1 S.	1838-5				71 20	- 8	712 /113	10-45	+.01	10-46 10-46
Carlisle	54 54	357 06	P.	1837-5				71 29	10	71.3	10-48	+.01	10-49
Strabane	54 49	352 32 358 00	L.	1834-5				72 00	-16	71.7	10.58	+101	10-59
SkullSkiddaw		356 51	F. F.	1837 5 1837 5				71 14	-10 -10	71-1			
Penrith	54 40	357 15	P.	1837-5				71 23	-10	71-2	10 46	+01	10-47
Bangor	54 39	354 18	8.	1836.5				71 39	-12	71.5	1054	+.01	10-55
Keswick Whitehaven	54 22	356 51 356 27	F. S.	1837·5 1838·5				71 14	-10 - 8	71·1 71·1	10.46	+-01	10-47

						Declinat	ion.		Inclinat	ion.		Fore	θ.
Stations	Lat. N.	Long. E.	Ob- server	Date.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected : degrees and decimals.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected: degrees and decimals.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected.
Patterdale	54 32	357 04	P.	1937-5	. ,	0 /		71 2ó	-16	71.2 °	10-46	+-01	10-47
Darlington		358 27	P.	1837-5				71 07	-10	71.0	1940	401	10 47
Whithy	54 29	359 23	P.	1837 5				70 58	-10	70-8	10-41	+-01	10-42
Grassmere	54 27	356 59	F,	1837.5				71 13	-10	71-1			
Lissadel	54 23	351 27	*	1838 5				71 56	- 8	71.8			******
Bowness	54 22	357 05 358 42	P. P.	1837·5 1837·5				71 18 71 03	-10	71-1	10-46	+ 01	10-47 10-42
Osmotherly	54 22	356 55	P.	1837.5				71 20	-10 -10	70·9 71·2	10:41 10:48	+.01	10 49
Enniskillen	54 21	352 22	L.	1831-5				72 00	-16	71.7		1 02	
Armagh	54 21	353 21	JL.	1×34-5				71 42	-16	71.4 71.5	10-52	+4)1	10 53
			R.	1839-5				71 41	- 6	11.0			
Hambleton	54 20	358 43	P.	1837·5 1837·5				71 04 70 42	-10 -10	70·9 70·5)	10·41 10·38	+ 01	10:42
Scarborough	51 17	359 37	R.	1838-5				70 42	- 8	70-6 70-6	10.39	+-01	10-40
som borough			ŝ.	1859 5				61 59	+34	706	10.42	- 02	10:40
Thirsk	54 14	358 39	`P.	1837 5				70 59	-12	70.8	10-43	+01	10-44
Belmullet	54 13	350 03	L.	1835-3				72 13	-16	720	10.57	+.01	10.58
Peel Town	54 13	355 17	P.	1837-5				71 24	-11	71.2	10.48	+-01	10.49
Markree	54 12	351 34	∫ L. R.	1835 5				72 06 72 02	-16	71.9 71.8	10-56	+ 01	10-57
			P.	1837-5				71 22	-10	71.9	10-43	+-01	10.50
Douglas	54 10	355 32	R.	1837-5				71 22	-11 -11	71 2 71.2	10 43	+71	10.30
Studley Park	54 08	358 26	F.	1837 5		,,,,,,		70 56	-ii	70.8			
Bridlington		359 46	R. {	1838-5	24 39	-0 24	24.3] 0. 0	70 39	- 9	70.5			*****
	1			1854-5	22 44	+1 25	$24.3 \atop 24.2$ 24.2		******				22102
Flamborough	54 08	339 52	Р.	1837-5 1835-5				70 37	-11	70-4	10-36	+.01	10-37 10-56
Ballina	54 07,	350 53	{ L. F.	1835 5				72 11 72 07	-18 -18	71.8 71.9	10.55	+-01	10.00
Castleton	54 01	353 20 :	P.	1837-5				71 23	-12	71.2	10.48	+.01	10-49
Carlingford		353 49	I.	18315				71 30	-19	712			
Fork	1 3	358 54 ;	ſ P.	1837.5				70 49	-11	70.6 70.6	10-40	+.01	10.41
			R.	18:85				70 45	- 9	70.0		******	
Loch Conn	53 58	350 50 3	F.	1835.5			þ	72 08	-17	71.9	10.55		10 58
Achil Ferry Garstang	52 54	357 13	E.	1835 5				72 07 70 59	-17 -12	71·8 70·8	10 57	+-01	10 35
Stonyhurst	53 51		S.	18585				70 00	+38	70-6	10-38	02	10.36
			ſF.	1835-5				72 03	-17	71.01	10 00		
Westport			R.	1839-5	29 09	-0 21	288	71 59	- 8	718 718	10.61	+.01	10-62
Edgeworthstown			R.	1834-5	28 08	-0 21	27.8	71 30	- 8	71.4			
Busko Bridge	53 39	357 10 ,	F.	1837-5				70 45	-12	70.6			
Grimsby	53 34	359 55	R. S.	1861-5	22 30	+1 27	24.0	69 30		70.9	10:36	02	10:34
Cleethorpe Doncaster	53 31	358 53	P.	1837-5				70 30	+44 -12	70.3	10-36	+01	10.38
Clifden	53 29	350 01	F.	1835 5				71 52	-18	71.6		T 01	
Clifden Wadworth	53 28	358 53	R.	1838-5				70 28	-10	70-3			******
Manchester	53 28	357 46	L.	1836 5		*****		70 48	-14	70-6			
Liverpool	53 25	356 59	[F.	1837-5	233			70 39	-12	70.5			
Gallhorick		350 55	14	1856-5	24 00	+1 27	25.5	*****	,;;	71.4			*****
	do 25	990 99	F.	1835 5		•••••		71 41 70 49	-18 -14	70.6	10-39	+.01	10-40) 20 40
Distant 1			P.	1837-5				70 39	-12	70.5	10.42	+01	10-43 10-42
Birkenhead	53 24	357 00	s.	1837-5				70 35	-12	70 4 70 5		T 01	
		1	R.	1837-5				70 36	-12	704)			*****
Calderstone	53 23	357 07	`P.	1837-5				70 44	-12	70.5	10 38	+.01	10 39
Sheffield	53 22	338 29	P.	1837.5				70 30	-11	70 3	10.40	+01	10-41
			[F.	1835-5 1836-5				70 59 71 03	-17 -15	70.7	10-48	+01	10.49
Dublin	53 21	353 44	R.	1838 5	27 35	-0 26	97.9	71 03	-10	70 8 70.75	10-48	+01	10-49 10-49
1		1	L	1842-5	27 13	-0 20	27·2 27·2	70 42	-10	707	10-48	-01	10-49
lowth	53 19	0 00	R.	183N-5	24 26	-0 24	24.0	70 19	- 9	70.2			
Tolyhead		855 23	(F.	1845 5				71 04	-17	708 70.9			
1	1	000 20	L	1836-5			i	71 09	-14	70.9	10-42	+-01	10-43
lalway	53 17	350 56	(F.	1835-5				71 26	-18	71-1 71-2	10.50		10.55
hannon Hanhous	59 14	352 07	L.	1835 5	00 09	0.00	97.0	71 33	-18	11.01	10-56	+01	10.57
Singor !	20 14	355 54	R. F.	1835-5	28 03	-0 28	27 6	71 23 71 02	-10 -17	71·2 70·8			•••••
GOU	53 11 :	356 48	P.	1837-5				79 41	-12	70-5	10-39	+-01	10-40
		355 46	F.	1833-5				70 58	-17	70-7		т и	
tangwana	58 98	355 46	S.	1858-5				70 03	+40	70-7	10.44	02	10-42
		358 28	IL.	1836 5				70 29	14	79-3 70-2			
	- 00		F.	1837-5				70 19	-12	70-1			*****

^{*} Observed by Mr. ARCHIBALD SMITH.

[†] Observed by Mr. RUNDELL of Liverpool.

`						Declination	on.		Inclinat	ion.		Force	
Stations.	Lat. N.	Long. E	Ob- server.	Date.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected : degrees and decimals.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected: degrees and decimals.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected.
Llanberris	53 07	355 52	F.	1835-5	′			70 5 ⁹ 7	-17	70·7 °		ļ	
Capelcarrig	53 06	356 07	F.	1585-5				70 48	-17	705			
Nottingham	52 57	358 52	R.	1838-5	24 53	-0 24	24.5	70 16	-10	70.1			
Cromer	52 56	1 19	R.	1838-5	23 21	-0 24	22-9	69 46	-10	69-6	10-29	- 02	10.27
Pwllbeli	i	355 37	R.	1861-5 1837-5				68 55 70 33	+44	70-4	10 40	- 02	1021
Rathdrum		353 46	L	18.5.5			1	70 54	-18	70-6	10.41	+-01	10:42
Kiltanon	1	351 17	ſ8.	1834-5				71 21	-21	71.0 71.0	10 56	+01	10.57
Ennis	52 51	351 02	8. L.	1835·5 1835·5				71 20 71 13	-19 -19	71.0 } 71.0	10-53	+.01	10 54
Stafford	52 48	357 54	R.	1837-5				70 10	-12	70-0		7 01	
Cawston		3 12	J 8.	1860 5				68 54	+43	69-6 60-6	10.31	02	10.29
			\ S.	1861-5				(8 52	+46	00.0	10.20		10.01
Lynn		0 25	L.	1836·5 1836·5				69 53 70 28	-14 -15	70-2 70-2	10:30 10:35	+-91	10:36
Shrewsbury	52 43	357 15	S.	1837-5				70 25	-13	70 2 70 2	10.33	+ (1)	10 34 10-3
Gorey	52 40	353 43	T.	1835-5				70 56	-18	706	10.40	+.01	10 41
-			(8.	1834-5				71 04	-22	70-7			
Limerick	52 40	351 24	S.	1835·5 1835·5				71 06	-19 -19	70-7			******
LAMETICK	52 4U	JJ1 24	S.	1836-5				71 03	-19	70.8	10.53	+ 01	10 54) 10.5
			R.	1838-5	28 03	-0 28	27.6	71 00	-11	70-8	10.52	+-01	10.53
Ballybunian	52 30	350 19	S.	1835-3				71 20	-20	71-0	10-61	+.01	10-62
Lowestoft	52 28	1 50	R.	1838-5	23 00	-0 25	22.6	69 29 68 39	-10	69.4 69.3	10.30	- 02	10-28
			\ S. (P.	1851.5 1837.5				68 39 70 07	+47 -12	20.0	10-18	+01	10.28
Birmingham	52 28	358 07	R.	1837-5				70 01	-12	698 699			
Aberysthwith	52 24	355 35	S.	1837.5				70 24	-13	70.2	10.38	+.01	10-39
Daventry	52 16	358 52	R.	1837-5				69 41	-12	69.5	10-14		10.453
Waterford	52 15	352 52	R.	1835 5 1838 5	26 44	-0 28	26.3	70 51 70 48	-19 -11	70 5 70 6 } 70·5	10.18	+01	10 45 10-4
Blennerville	52 15	350 16	Br.	1857-5	27 24	+1 44	29-1	70 40		100,			10 40)
Broadway	52 13	353 36	L.	1835-5				70 36	-20	70.3	10.45	+-01	10-46
Cambridge		0 07	[L	1836-5				69 42	-15	69. 69.4	10:27	+-01	10 28) 10-2
Fermoy	52 07		\ S.	1860·5 1834·5				68 42 70 48	+44 -22	69 4 } 00 4 70 4	1028	- 02	10.26
Dingle			S.	1836-5				71 08	-23	70.7	10-62	+01	10.63
Malvern	52 07	357 31	F.	1835 5				70 11	18	69.9			
Hereford	52 04	357 16	L.	1836.5				70 07	-15	69 9	10.32	+.01	10-33
Killarney	52 03	350 29	8. R.	1834·5 1838·5	28 11	-0 28	27.6	71 05 70 51	-22 -11	70.7 70.7	10 53	+ 01	10-54
Llandovery	52 01	356 15	S.	1860-5	20 11	-17 28	27.0	69 10	+29	69.7	10 35	- 62	10:33
Youghai	51 57	352 10	8.	1835.5				70 39	-19	70.3	10.50	+ 41	10.51
Brecon	51 57	356 39	8.	1837 5				70 03	-13	69-8	1034	+.01	10.35
Valencia	51 56	349 43	{ S. R.	1835 5 1838-5 (-0 28	28-2	71 05	- 20 - 11	70.8	10-57	+ 01	10 58 10 5
Harwich		1 13	R.	1838-5	28 42 23 08	-0 28 -0 25	28.2	70 52 69 15	-10	69-1	10-30	+-01	10'20)
Ross	51 55	357 25	F.	1835-5	20 00	-0 23	22.	70 00	-14	69-8			
Cork		351 34	[L.	1835 5				70 43	-20	70-4 70-5	10-47	+ 01	10.48 104
		350 29	₹R.	1838-5 (1834-5)	27 14	-0 28	26.8	70 59	-11	193)	10.49	+.01	10-50 5
Glengariffe Merthyr	51 43	350 29 356 39	S.	1837.5				71 02 70 04	-23 -13	70·7 69·9	10-36	+.01	10-37
St. Catherine's	51 40	355 17	A.	1856-5	24 30	+1 27	25.9	/V U4	- 10	350		+01	10.07
Meath	51 40	356 14	F.	1835 5				69 57	-18	69 7			
Bearhaven	51 39	350 09	Ch.	1557-0	26 42	+1 40	28-4						
Bushey	1 1	359 38	R.	1837·5 1837·5	23 59	-0 31	23.5	69 25	-13	69.2			
Stackpole Court	51 38	355 05	R.	1860-5				69 56 68 58	-13 + 49	69.8 69-7	10.40		10 38
Changtow	51 38	357 20	F.	1835.5				69 48	-19	69.5			
Chepstow	1		L.	1836-5				69 48	-1B	69 5	10.31	+-01	10-32
Swansea	51 36	356 05	R.	1837.5				69 47	-13	69-6			
			S. F.	1837·5 1838.5				69 21 69 18	-13 -11	69·1 69·1			
London	51 32	359 50	KL.	1836-5				69 23	-15	69 1 > 69-1			10.28
			P.	1837 5				69 19	-13	69-1			
C 1. TT		050 00	R.	1848-5				69 16	-11	69-1	2000		
Combe House	51 31	357 26	F.	1838·5 1838·5				69 32	-11	69.4	10-50	+.01	10-31
Kew	51 29	359 42	Oby.	1842 5	23 13		23-2	69 17	-11	69-1 69-1	10.28		10 28
			8.	1858-5	20 10		40.4	68 24	+43	69-1	1020		
Woolwich	51 29	0 02	E.	1857-5	21 46	+1 33	23-3						
Greenwich	51 28	0 00	Ot.	1842-5	23 11		23-2	******					10.98
Dunraven Castle	51 28	356 23	8.	1837.5	******			69 46	-14	69-5	10.35	+01	10.36

GENERAL SIR EDWARD SABINE ON TERRESTRIAL MAGNETISM. 275

, 2 · · · ·	-					Declinati	on.		Inclinat	ion.		Force	
Stations.	Lat. N.	Long. E.	Ob- server.	Date.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected : legrees and decimals.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected: degrees and decimals.	Ob- served.	Secular change.	Corrected.
Clifton	. ,	• /	ſL.	1836 5			0	69 43	-16	695) 004	10:30	+-01,	10:31
Tooting	51 27	357 25	R.	1837 5				69 34	-14	69.3 69.4		1	
Mariborough	51 26	359 50	F.	1838-5				69 15	-11	69-1			
Mai more a	51 23	3.8 17	R.	1837.5				69 25	-14	69 2			
Worcester Park	51 23	359 43	S.	1838-5				69 07	-11	68-9	10 28	+01	10-29
HOLOGODE T			(8.	1837.5	,,,,,,			69 03	-14	68.81	10-24	+01	10-25
Margate'	51 23	1 23	R.	1838-5	22 54	-0 25	22.5	68 57	-11	68-8 68-8	10.54	A 67	10.2
31arga00			S.	1860-5				58 06	+49	68.9	10-25	~-02	10.23
Kastwick Park	51 17	359 41	F.	1838-5				69 98	-11	63.0	10-27	+01	10.28
Broome Park	51 14	359 42	8.	1859-5				68 91	+16	68-8	10-25	- 02	10-23
Guildford	51 14	359 26	R.	1837-5	es			69 05	T14	68-9			
Hifracombe	51 10	353 54	R.	1837.5				69 37	-14	69.4		******	
		1 19	S.	18:7.5				68 52	-14	68-6	10 22	1.41	10 00
Dover	51 05	i 10	8.	1880-5				67 54	+49	68-7	10 22	+01	10 23
Folkestone			ſL.	1834-5				69 23	-15	00.13		02	10-21
Salisbury	51 04	358 12	I R	1837-5				69 15	-13	691 69-0	10.28	+.01	10-29
		359 45	E.		60.00		99.0		1	690}			
Shoreham	50 51			1857.5	22 02	+1 33	23.6	0	1777	20.0	10.00		
St. Leonards	30 31	0 33	S.	1858-5				67 49	+45	68-6	10.23	02	10:21
Tortington	50 50	359 26	{ R.	1837.5				68 56	-14	68.7 68.7			
	1		8.	1837.5				68 57	-14	64.7	10 26	+ 01	10-27
Brighton	50 50	359 52	L.	1834-5				68 50	-17	68-6	10.23	+-01	10-24
Southeen	50 48	359 02	R.	18375	1			69 00	-14	65.8			
Eastbourne	50 47	0 16	F	1838-5				68 45	-11	68.6	10-21	+.01	10-22
St. Clairs	50 44	338 52	P.	1837-5	i			69 01	-14	68.8	10.28	+-01	10-29
Rvde	50 41	358 50	L.	1836 5				69 01	-17	68.7	10.24	+ 01	10-25
Exeter	50 43	356 29	R.	1837-5			l l	69 06	-14	68-9			
		355 30	S.	1838 5			.,	69 19	-11	69-1 69-1	10.32	+-01	10 33 1 10.2
Lew Trenchard	50 40	303 00	S.	1859.5			l l	68 18	+48	69 1 091	10-33	02	10-31 10-3
Wermouth	50 37	357 33	R	1837-5 ·				69 07	-14	68.9			
Padstow	50 33	355 94	R.	1837-5				69 25	-14	69.2			
Teignmouth	50 33	356 30	S.	1859-5				68 05	+48	68 9	10.28	02	10.26
Torquay	50 28	356 28	8.	1859.5	******			68 04	+48	68 9	10.24	- 02	10.22
zorganj	1	1	f R.	1837-5				69 06	-14				10 22
Plymouth	50 22	355 51	S.	1859-5				68 06	+48	68.9 68.9	10 27	02	10-25
J moum	1		∏ Č*.	1857-5	23 28	+1 33	25 0			1			
Bigbury	50 17	356 07	C*.	1857-5	23 20	+1 36	249	1		*****	1:	i	
Bolt Tail	50 11	354 08	i č∗.	1857-5	21 19	+1 36	24.9	******					
Deadman	50 13	355 12	W.	1857 0	23 46	+1 34	25.3						
		356 13	Cx	1857.5	23 19	+1 36	249				j		
Salcombe	90 13	950 19	/ R.	1837-5			1	69 16	17	00.41		h	
	1	i							-17	69.0	10.00		
** **	-0 10		S.	1838-5		*****		69 12	-12	69-0 69-0	10.29	+.01	10-30 10-3
Falmouth	50 10	354 54	į F.	1838-5				69 14	-12	09.0	10-29	+01	10.30
	1	1	· 8	1859-0	211111			69 08	+52	69-0			
	1		W.	1856-0	24 06	+1 25	25.5					*****	
Mounts Bay		354 29	W*.	1881 0	23 41	+1 58	25.7						
Lands End		354 20	R.	1837 5				69 19	-17	69-0			
St. Marys		353 43	F.	1838-5				69 26	-14	69-2			,,,,,,
St. Heliers	49 19	357 55	E.	1837-5	21 35	+1 34	23.2						

XV. On the Thermodynamic Theory of Waves of Finite Longitudinal Disturbance. By W. J. Macquorn Rankine, C.E., LL.D., F.R.SS. Lond. & Edin., &c.

Received August 13,-Read December 16, 1869.

- § 1. The object of the present investigation is to determine the relations which must exist between the laws of the elasticity of any substance, whether gaseous, liquid, or solid, and those of the wave-like propagation of a finite longitudinal disturbance in that substance; in other words, of a disturbance consisting in displacements of particles along the direction of propagation, the velocity of displacement of the particles being so great that it is not to be neglected in comparison with the velocity of propagation. In particular, the investigation aims at ascertaining what conditions as to the transfer of heat from particle to particle must be fulfilled in order that a finite longitudinal disturbance may be propagated along a prismatic or cylindrical mass without loss of energy or change of type: the word type being used to denote the relation between the extent of disturbance at a given instant of a set of particles, and their respective undisturbed positions. The disturbed matter in these inquiries may be conceived to be contained in a straight tube of uniform cross-section and indefinite length.
- § 2. Mass-Velocity.—A convenient quantity in the present investigation is what may be termed the mass-velocity or somatic velocity—that is to say, the mass of matter through which a disturbance is propagated in a unit of time while advancing along a prism of the sectional area unity. That mass-velocity will be denoted by m.

Let S denote the *bulkiness*, or the space filled by unity of mass, of the substance in the undisturbed state, and a the linear velocity of advance of the wave; then we have evidently

a=mS. (1)

§ 3. Cinematical Condition of Permanency of Type.—If it be possible for a wave of disturbance to be propagated in a uniform tube without change of type, that possibility is expressed by the uniformity of the mass-velocity m for all parts of the wave.

Conceive a space in the supposed tube, of an invariable length Δx , to be contained between a pair of transverse planes, and let those planes advance with the linear velocity a in the direction of propagation. Let the values of the bulkiness of the matter at the foremost and aftermost planes respectively be denoted by s_1 and s_2 , and those of the velocity of longitudinal disturbance by u_1 and u_2 . Then the linear velocities with which the particles traverse the two planes respectively are as follows: for the foremost plane u_1-a , for the aftermost plane u_2-a . The uniformity of type of the disturbance involves as a condition, that equal masses of matter traverse the two planes respectively in a given

time, being each, in unity of time, expressed by the mass-velocity; hence we have, as the cinematical condition of uniformity of type, the following equation:

$$\frac{a-u_1}{s_1} = \frac{a-u_2}{s_2} = \frac{a}{\bar{S}} = m. \qquad (2)$$

Another way of expressing the same condition is as follows:

§ 4. Dynamical Condition of Permanency of Type.—Let p_1 and p_2 be the intensities of the longitudinal pressure at the foremost and aftermost advancing planes respectively. Then in each unit of time the difference of pressure, p_2-p_1 , impresses on the mass m the acceleration u_2-u_1 , and consequently, by the second law of motion, we have the following value for the difference of pressure:

Then substituting for the acceleration u_2-u_1 its value in terms of the change of bulkiness as given by equation (3), we obtain, for the *dynamical condition* of permanency of type, the following equation,

$$p_2-p_1=m^2(s_1-s_2), \ldots (5)$$

which may also be put in the form of an expression giving the value of the square of the mass-velocity, viz.

$$m^2 = -\frac{\Delta p}{\Delta s} = -\frac{dp}{ds}. \qquad (6)$$

The square of the linear velocity of advance is given by the following equation:

$$a^2 = m^2 S^2 = -S^2 \frac{dp}{ds}. \qquad (7)$$

The integral form of the preceding equations may be expressed as follows. Let S, as before, be the bulkiness in the undisturbed state, and P the longitudinal pressure; then in a wave of disturbance of permanent type, we must have the following condition fulfilled:

$$p+m^2s=P+m^2S.$$
 (8)

§ 5. Waves of Sudden Disturbance.—The condition expressed by the equations of the preceding section holds for any type of disturbance, continuous or discontinuous, gradual or abrupt. To represent, in particular, the case of a single abrupt disturbance, we must conceive the foremost and aftermost advancing planes already mentioned to coalesce into one. Then P is the longitudinal pressure, and S the bulkiness, in front of the advancing plane; p is the longitudinal pressure, and s the bulkiness, behind the advancing plane; and the advancing plane is a wave-front of sudden compression or of sudden rarefaction.

^{* (}Note, added 1st August, 1870.) Sir William Thomson has pointed out to the author, that a wave of sudden rarefaction, though mathematically possible, is an unstable condition of motion; any deviation from absolute suddenness tending to make the disturbance become more and more gradual. Hence the only wave of sudden disturbance whose permanency of type is physically possible, is one of sudden compression; and this is to be taken into account in connexion with all that is stated in the paper respecting such waves.

according as p is greater or less than P. The squares of the mass-velocity and of the linear velocity of advance are respectively as follows:

The velocity of the disturbed particles is as follows:

$$u = m(S-s) = \frac{p-P}{m} = \sqrt{(p-P).(S-s)};$$
 (11)

and it is forward or backward according as the wave is one of compression or of rarefaction.

The energy expended in unity of time, in producing any such wave, is expressed by pu; for the wave may be conceived to be produced in a tube closed at one end by a moveable piston of inappreciable mass, to which there is applied a pressure p different from the undisturbed pressure P, and which consequently moves with the velocity u. The way in which that energy is disposed of is as follows: actual energy of the disturbance, $\frac{mu^2}{2}$; work done in altering bulkiness, $\frac{m(p+P)(S-s)}{2}$; and the equation of the conservation of energy is

$$pu = \frac{m}{2} \{u^2 + (p+P)(S-s)\}.$$
 (11a)

§ 6. Thermodynamic Conditions.—While the equations of the two preceding sections impose the constancy of the rate of variation of pressure with bulkiness during the disturbance $\left(\frac{d\rho}{ds} = -m^2\right)$ as an indispensable condition of permanency of type of the wave, they leave the limits of pressure and of bulkiness, being four quantities, connected by one equation only $\binom{p_2-p_1}{s_1-s_2} = -\frac{d\rho}{ds} = m^2$. Two only of those quantities can be arbitrary; therefore one more equation is required, and that is to be determined by the aid of the laws of thermodynamics.

It is to be observed, in the first place, that no substance yet known fulfils the condition expressed by the equation $\frac{dp}{ds} = -m^2 = \text{constant}$, between finite limits of disturbance, at a constant temperature, nor in a state of non-conduction of heat (called the *adiabatic* state). In order, then, that permanency of type may be possible in a wave of longitudinal disturbance, there must be both change of temperature and conduction of heat during the disturbance.

The cylindrical or prismatic tube in which the disturbance is supposed to take place being ideal, is to be considered as non-conducting. Also, the foremost and aftermost transverse advancing planes, or front and back of the wave, which contain between them the particles whose pressure and bulkiness are in the act of varying, are to be considered as non-conducting, because of there being an indefinite length of matter before the foremost and behind the aftermost plane, to resist conduction.

The transfer of heat, therefore, takes place wholly amongst the particles undergoing variation of pressure and bulkiness; and therefore for any given particle, during its passage from the front to the back of the wave, the *integral amount of heat received must be nothing*; and this is the thermodynamic condition which gives the required equation. That equation is expressed as follows:

$$\int_{a}^{a} r d\varphi = 0; \qquad (12)$$

in which τ denotes absolute temperature, and ϕ the "thermodynamic function." The value of that function, as explained in various papers and treatises on thermodynamics, is given by the following formula:

in which J is the dynamical value of a unit of heat; c, the real specific heat of the substance; $\chi(\tau)$, a function of the temperature alone, which is =0 for all temperatures at which the substance is capable of approximating indefinitely to the perfectly gaseous state, and is introduced into the formula solely to provide for the possible existence of substances which at some temperatures are incapable of approximating to the perfectly gaseous state; and U, the work which the elastic forces in unity of mass are capable of doing at the constant temperature τ . The substitution for the integral in equation (12) of its value in terms of p and s for any particular substance, gives a relation between the limits of pressure p_1 and p_2 , and the limits of bulkiness s_1 and s_2 , which being combined with equation (5), or with any one of the equivalent equations (6), (8), or (9), completes the expression of the laws of the propagation of waves of finite longitudinal disturbance and permanent type in that particular substance.

§ 7. Assumption as to Transfer of Heat.—In applying the principles of the preceding section to the propagation of waves of longitudinal disturbance, it is obviously assumed that the transfer of heat takes place between the various particles which are undergoing disturbance at a given time, in such a manner as to ensure the fulfilment of the dynamical condition of permanency of type. It appears highly probable, that how great soever the resistance of the substance to the conduction of heat may be, that assumption as to the transfer is realized when the disturbance is sudden, as described in § 5; for then particles in all the successive stages of the change of pressure and bulkiness within the limits of the disturbance are at inappreciable distances from each other; so that the resistance to the transfer of heat between them is inappreciable.

But when the disturbance is not sudden, it is probable that the assumption as to the transfer of heat is fulfilled in an approximate manner only; and if such is the case, it follows that the only longitudinal disturbance which can be propagated with absolute permanence of type is a sudden disturbance.

§ 8. Combination of the Dynamic and Thermodynamic Equations.—In every fluid, and

probably in many solids, the quantity of heat received during an indefinitely small change of pressure dp and of bulkiness ds is capable of being expressed in either of the following forms:

$$\frac{\tau d\phi}{J} = c_* \frac{d\tau}{dp} dp + c_p \frac{d\tau}{ds} ds;$$

in which c_* and c_p denote the specific heat at constant bulkiness and at constant pressure respectively; and the differential coefficients $\frac{d\tau}{dp}$ and $\frac{d\tau}{ds}$ of the absolute temperature are taken, the former on the supposition that the bulkiness is constant, and the latter on the supposition that the pressure is constant. Let it now be supposed that the bulkiness varies with the pressure according to some definite law; and let the actual rate of variation of the bulkiness with the pressure be denoted by $\frac{ds}{dp}$. Then equation (12) may be expressed in the following form:

$$\int_{p_1}^{p_2} dp \cdot \left\{ c_s \frac{d\tau}{dp} + c_p \frac{d\tau}{ds} \cdot \frac{ds}{dp} \right\} = 0.$$

Now, according to the dynamic condition of permanence of type, we have by equation (6),

$$\frac{ds}{dp} = -\frac{1}{m^2};$$

which, being substituted in the preceding integrals, gives the following equations from which to deduce the square of the mass-velocity:

$$\int_{p_1}^{p_2} dp \cdot \left\{ m^2 c_s \frac{d\tau}{dp} - c_p \frac{d\tau}{ds} \right\} = 0. \quad (13)$$

It is sometimes convenient to substitute for $c_p \frac{d\tau}{ds}$ the following value, which is a known consequence of the laws of thermodynamics:

$$c_p \frac{d\tau}{ds} = c_s \frac{d\tau}{ds} + \frac{\tau dp}{\mathbf{J}d\tau}, \qquad (13 \text{ A})$$

the differential coefficient $\frac{dp}{d\tau}$ being taken on the supposition that s is constant. The equations (13) and (13 A) are applicable to all fluids, and probably to many solids also, especially those which are isotropic.

The determination of the squared mass-velocity, m^2 , enables the bulkiness s for any given pressure p, and the corresponding velocity of disturbance u, to be found by means of the following formulæ, which are substantially identical with equations (8) and (3) respectively:

Equation (15) also serves to calculate the pressure p corresponding to a given velocity of disturbance u. It may here be repeated that the linear velocity of advance is a=mS (equation 1).

§ 9. Application to a Perfect Gas.—In a perfect gas, the specific heat at constant volume, c_s , and the specific heat at constant pressure, c_p , are both constant; and consequently bear to each other a constant ratio, $\frac{c_p}{c_s}$, whose value for air, oxygen, nitrogen, and hydrogen is nearly 1.41, and for steam-gas nearly 1.3. Let this ratio be denoted by γ . Also, the differential coefficients which appear in equations (13) and (13A) have the following values:—

$$\frac{d\tau}{dp} = \frac{\tau}{p} = \frac{s}{J(c_p - c_s)} = \frac{s}{J(\gamma - 1)c_s};$$

$$\frac{d\tau}{ds} = \frac{\tau}{s} = \frac{p}{J(c_p - c_s)} = \frac{p}{J(\gamma - 1)c_s};$$

$$\frac{dp}{d\tau} = \frac{p}{\tau} = \frac{J(c_p - c_s)}{s} = \frac{J(\gamma - 1)c_s}{s}.$$
(16)

When these substitutions are made in equation (13), and constant common factors cancelled, it is reduced to the following:

$$\int_{p_1}^{p_2} dp \cdot \{m^2 s - \gamma p\} = 0. \qquad (17)$$

But according to the dynamical condition of permanence of type, as expressed in equation (8), we have $m^2s=m^2S+P-p$; whence it follows that the value of the integral in equation (17) is

$$\int_{p_1}^{p_2} dp \cdot \{m^2 S + P - (\gamma + 1)p\} = (m^2 S + P)(p_2 - p_1) - \frac{\gamma + 1}{2} (p_2^2 - p_1^2) = 0;$$

which, being divided by p_z-p_1 , gives for the square of the mass-velocity of advance the following value:

$$m^2 = \frac{1}{S} \{ (\gamma + 1) \cdot \frac{p_2 + p_1}{2} - P \}$$
 (18)

The square of the linear velocity of advance is

$$a^2 = m^2 S^2 = S\left\{ (\gamma + 1) \cdot \frac{p_2 + p_1}{2} - P \right\} \cdot \dots \cdot (19)$$

The velocity of disturbance u corresponding to a given pressure p, or, conversely, the pressure p corresponding to a given velocity of disturbance, may be found by means of equation (15).

Such are the general equations of the propagation of waves of longitudinal disturbance of permanent type along a cylindrical mass of a perfect gas whose undisturbed pressure and bulkiness are respectively P and S. In the next two sections particular cases will be treated of.

§ 10. Wave of Oscillation in a Perfect Gas.—Let the mean between the two extreme

pressures be equal to the undisturbed pressure; that is, let

$$\frac{p_2+p_3}{2}=P; \qquad \dots \qquad (20)$$

then equations (18) and (19) become simply

$$m^2 = \frac{\gamma P}{S}, \ldots (21)$$

and

the last of which is LAPLACE'S well-known law of the propagation of sound. The three equations of this section are applicable to an indefinitely long series of waves in which equal disturbances of pressure take place alternately in opposite directions.

§ 11. Wave of Permanent Compression or Dilatation in a Tube of Perfect Gas.—To adapt equation (18) to the case of a wave of permanent compression or dilatation in a tube of perfect gas, the pressure at the front of the wave is to be made equal to the undisturbed pressure, and the pressure at the back of the wave to the final or permanently altered pressure. Let the final pressure be denoted simply by p; then $p_1 = P$, and $p_2 = p$; giving for the square of the mass-velocity

for the square of the linear velocity of advance

$$a^2 = m^2 S^2 = S\left\{ (\gamma + 1)^{\frac{p}{2}} + (\gamma - 1)^{\frac{p}{2}} \right\}, \dots \dots \dots (24)$$

and for the final velocity of disturbance

$$u = \frac{p-P}{m} = (p-P)\sqrt{\left\{\frac{S}{(\gamma+1)\frac{p}{2} + (\gamma-1)\frac{P}{2}}\right\}}.$$
 (25)

Equations (23) and (24) show that a wave of condensation is propagated faster, and a wave of rarefaction slower, than a series of waves of oscillation. They further show that there is no upper limit to the velocity of propagation of a wave of condensation; and also that to the velocity of propagation of a wave of rarefaction there is a lower limit, found by making p=0 in equations (23) and (24). The values of that lower limit, for the squares of the mass-velocity and linear velocity respectively, are as follows:—

$$m^2(p=0) = \frac{(\gamma-1)P}{2S};$$
 (26)

. and the corresponding value of the velocity of disturbance, being its negative limit, is

It is to be borne in mind that the last three equations represent a state of matters which may be approximated to, but not absolutely realized.

Equation (25) gives the velocity with which a piston in a tube is to be moved inwards or outwards as the case may be, in order to produce a change of pressure from P to p, travelling along the tube from the piston towards the further end. Equation (25) may be converted into a quadratic equation, for finding p in terms of u; in other words, for finding what pressure must be applied to a piston in order to make it move at a given speed along a tube filled with a perfect gas whose undisturbed pressure and bulkiness are P and S. The quadratic equation is as follows:

$$p^{2} - \left(2P + \frac{\gamma + 1}{2S}u^{2}\right)p - \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \cdot \frac{Pu^{2}}{S} + P^{2} = 0;$$

and its alternative roots are given by the following formula:

$$p = P + \frac{\gamma + 1}{4S} u^2 \pm \sqrt{\left\{\frac{\gamma P u^2}{S} + \frac{(\gamma + 1)^2 u^4}{16S^2}\right\}}. \quad (29)$$

The sign + or - is to be used, according as the piston moves inwards so as to produce condensation, or outwards so as to produce rarefaction. Suppose, now, that in a tube of unit area, filled with a perfect gas whose undisturbed pressure and volume are P and S, there is a piston dividing the space within that tube into two parts, and moving at the uniform velocity u: condensation will be propagated from one side of the piston, and rarefaction from the other; the pressures on the two sides of the piston will be expressed by the two values of p in equation (29); and the force required in order to keep the piston in motion will be the difference of these values; that is to say,

Two limiting cases of the last equation may be noted: first, if the velocity of the piston is very small compared with the velocity of sound, that is if $\frac{Su^2}{\sqrt{P}}$ is very small, we have

$$\Delta p$$
 nearly $=2u \cdot \sqrt{\left(\frac{\gamma P}{S}\right)}$; (30 A)

secondly, if the velocity of the piston is very great compared with the velocity of sound, that is if $\frac{\gamma P}{Su^2}$ is very small, we have

§ 12. Absolute Temperature.—The absolute temperature of a given particle of a given substance, being a function of the pressure p and bulkiness s, can be calculated for a point in a wave of disturbance for which p and s are given. In particular, the absolute temperature in a perfect gas is given by the following well-known thermodynamic formula:

$$\tau = \frac{ps}{(Jc_p - c_e)}; \qquad (31)$$

and if, in that formula, there be substituted the value of s in terms of p, given by equa-

tions (8) and (18) combined, we find, for the absolute temperature of a particle at which the pressure is p, in a wave of permanent type, the following value:

$$\tau = \frac{PS}{J(c-c_{\bullet})} \cdot \frac{(\gamma+1)(p_1+p_2)p-2p^2}{(\gamma+1)(p_1+p_2)P-2P^2}; \qquad (32)$$

in which the first factor $\frac{PS}{J(c_p-c_i)}$ is obviously the *undisturbed* value of the absolute temperature. For brevity's sake, let this be denoted by T.

The following particular cases may be noted. In a wave of oscillation, as defined in § 10, we have $p_1+p_2=2P$; and consequently

In a wave of permanent condensation or rarefaction, as described in § 11, let $p_1=P$, $p_2=P$; then the final temperature is

$$\tau = T \cdot \frac{(\gamma+1)Pp + (\gamma-1)p^2}{(\gamma+1)Pp + (\gamma-1)P^2}$$

§ 13. Types of Disturbance capable of Permanence.—In order that a particular type of disturbance may be capable of permanence during its propagation, a relation must exist between the temperatures of the particles and their relative positions, such that the conduction of heat between the particles may effect the transfers of heat required by the thermodynamic conditions of permanence of type stated in § 6.

During the time occupied by a given phase of the disturbance in traversing a unit of mass of the cylindrical body of area unity in which the wave is travelling, the quantity of heat received by that mass, as determined by the thermodynamic conditions, is expressed in dynamical units by $\tau d\phi$.

The time during which that transfer of heat takes place is the reciprocal $\frac{1}{m}$ of the mass-velocity of the wave. Let $\frac{d\tau}{dx}$ be the rate at which temperature varies with longitudinal distance, and k the conductivity of the substance, in dynamical units; then the same quantity of heat, as determined by the laws of conduction, is expressed by

$$\frac{1}{m}$$
. $d\left(k\frac{d\tau}{dx}\right)$.

The equality of these two expressions gives the following general differential equation for the determination of the types of disturbance that are capable of permanence:

The following are the results of two successive integrations of that differential equation:—

$$\frac{dx}{d\tau} = \frac{k}{\mathbf{A} + m\sqrt{\tau}d\varphi}, \qquad (33 \text{ A})$$

$$x = B + \int_{A + m\sqrt{\tau}d\varphi}^{kd\tau}; \qquad (33 B)$$

in which A and B are arbitrary constants. The value of A depends on the magnitude of the disturbance, and that of B upon the position of the point from which x is reckoned. In applying these general equations to particular substances, the values of τ and φ are to be expressed in terms of the pressure p, by the aid of the formulæ of the preceding section; when equation (33 B) will give the value of x in terms of p, and thus will show the type of disturbance required.

Our knowledge of the laws of the conduction of heat is not yet sufficient to enable us to solve such problems as these for actual substances with certainty. As a hypothetical example, however, of a simple kind, we may suppose the substance to be perfectly gaseous and of constant conductivity. The assumption of the perfectly gaseous condition gives, according to the formulæ of the preceding sections,

$$\tau = \frac{\text{PS}}{(\gamma - 1)\text{J}c_s} \cdot \frac{(\gamma + 1)(p_1 + p_2)p - 2p^2}{(\gamma + 1)(p_1 + p_2)P - 2P^2},$$

and

$$\tau d\varphi = \frac{\gamma+1}{m^2(\gamma-1)} \left\{ \frac{p_2+p_1}{2} - p \right\} dp.$$

It is unnecessary to occupy space by giving the whole details of the calculation; and it may be sufficient to state that the following are the results. Let

$$p - \frac{p_1 + p_2}{2} = q,$$
 $\frac{p_2 - p_1}{2} = q_1;$

then

In equation (34 A) it is obvious that x is reckoned from the point where q=0; that is, where the pressure $p=\frac{p_x+p_1}{2}$; a mean between the greatest and least pressures. The direction in which x is positive may be either the same with or contrary to that of the advance of the wave; the former case represents the type of a wave of rarefaction, the latter that of a wave of compression. For the two limiting pressures when $q=\pm q_1$, $\frac{dx}{dq}$ becomes infinite, and x becomes positively or negatively infinite; so that the wave is infinitely long. The only exception to this is the limiting case, when the conductivity k is indefinitely small; and then we have the following results: when $p=p_1$, or $p=p_2$, $\frac{dx}{dp}$ is infinite, and x is indefinite; and for all values of p between p_1 and p_2 , $\frac{dx}{dp}$ and x are each indefinitely small. These conditions evidently represent the case of a wave of abrupt rarefaction or compression, already referred to in $\delta\delta$ 6 and 7.

Supplement to a Paper "On the Thermodynamic Theory of Waves of Finite Longitudinal Disturbance;" by W. J. Macquoen Rankine, C.E., LL.D., F.R.SS. Lond. & Edin.

Received October 1,-Read December 16, 1869.

Note as to previous investigations.—Four previous investigations on the subject of the transmission of waves of finite longitudinal disturbance may be referred to, in order to show in what respects the present investigation was anticipated by them, and in what respects its results are new.

The first is that of Poisson, in the Journal de l'Ecole Polytechnique, vol. vii. Cahier 14, p. 319. The author arrives at the following general equations for a gas fulfilling Mariotte's law:—

$$\frac{d\varphi}{dx} = f\left\{x - at - \frac{d\varphi}{dx}t\right\},\$$

$$\frac{d\varphi}{dt} + a\frac{d\varphi}{dx} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{d\varphi^2}{dx^2} = 0;$$

in which φ is the velocity-function; $\frac{d\varphi}{dx}$ the velocity of disturbance, at the time t, of a particle whose distance from the origin is x; a is the limit to which the velocity of propagation of the wave approximates when $\frac{d\varphi}{dx}$ becomes indefinitely small, viz. $\sqrt{\frac{dp_0}{dg_0}}$, p_0 being the undisturbed pressure and g_0 the undisturbed density; and f denotes an arbitrary function. This equation obviously indicates the quicker propagation of the parts of the wave where the disturbance is forward (that is, the compressed parts) and the slower propagation of the parts where the disturbance is backward (that is, the dilated parts).

The second is that of Mr. Stokes, in the Philosophical Magazine for November 1848, 3rd series, vol. xxxiii. p. 349, in which that author shows how the type of a series of waves of finite longitudinal disturbance in a perfect gas alters as it advances, and tends ultimately to become a series of sudden compressions followed by gradual dilatations.

The third is that of Mr. AIRY, Astronomer Royal, in the Philosophical Magazine for June 1849, 3rd series, vol. xxxiv. p. 401, in which is pointed out the analogy between the above-mentioned change of type in waves of sound, and that which takes place in sea-waves when they roll into shallow water.

The fourth, and most complete, is that of the Rev. Samuel Earnshaw, received by the Royal Society in November 1858, read in January 1859, and published in the Philosophical Transactions for 1860, page 133. That author obtains exact equations for the propagation of waves of finite longitudinal disturbance in a medium in which the pressure is any function of the density; he shows what changes of type, of the kind already mentioned, must go on in such waves; and he points out, finally, that in order that the type may be permanent $e^{2}\frac{dp}{ds}(=-\frac{dp}{ds})$ in the notation of the present paper) must be a constant

quantity; being the proposition which is demonstrated in an elementary way near the beginning of the present paper. Mr. EARNSHAW regards that condition as one which cannot be realized.

The new results, then, obtained in the present paper may be considered to be the following:—the conditions as to transformation and transfer of heat which must be fulfilled, in order that permanence of type may be realized, exactly or approximately; the types of wave which enable such conditions to be fulfilled, with a given law of the conduction of heat; and the velocity of advance of such waves.

*The method of investigation in the present paper, by the aid of mass-velocity to express the speed of advance of a wave, is new, so far as I know; and it seems to me to have great advantages in point of simplicity, enabling results to be demonstrated in a very elementary manner, which otherwise would have required comparatively long and elaborate processes of investigation.

XVI. On the Contact of Conics with Surfaces. By William Spottiswoode, M.A., F.R.S.

Received February 16,-Read March 10, 1870.

It is well known that at every point of a surface two tangents, called principal tangents, may be drawn having three-pointic contact with the surface, i.e. having an intimacy exceeding by one degree that generally enjoyed by a straight line and a surface. The object of the present paper is to establish the corresponding theorem respecting tangent conics, viz. that "at every point of a surface ten conics may be drawn having six-pointic contact with the surface;" these may be called Principal Tangent Conics. In this investigation I have adopted a method analogous to that employed in my paper "On the Sextactic Points of a Plane Curve" (Philosophical Transactions, vol. clv. p. 653); and as I there, in the case of three variables, introduced a set of three arbitrary constants in order to comprise a group of expressions in a single formula, so here, in the case of four variables, I introduce with the same view two sets of four arbitrary constants. If these constants be represented by α , β , γ , δ ; α' , β' , γ' , δ' , I consider the conic of fivepointic contact of a section of the surface made by the plane $\varpi - k\varpi' = 0$, where $\varpi = \alpha x + \beta y + \gamma z + \delta t$, and $\varpi' = \alpha' x + \beta' y + \gamma' z + \delta' t$, and k is indeterminate; and then I proceed to determine k, and thereby the azimuth of the plane about the line $\varpi = 0$, $\varpi'=0$, so that the contact may be six-pointic. The formulæ thence arising turn out to be strictly analogous to those belonging to the case of three variables, except that the arbitrary quantities cannot in general be divided out from the final expression. In fact, it is the presence of these quantities which enables us to determine the position of the plane of section, and the equation whereby this is effected proves to be of the degree 10 in $\varpi : \varpi' = k$, and besides this of the degree 12n - 27 in the coordinates x, y, z, t, giving rise to the theorem above stated.

Beyond the question of the principal tangents, it has been shown by CLEBSCH and SALMON that on every surface U a curve may be drawn, at every point of which one of the principal tangents will have a four-pointic contact. And if n be the degree of U, that of the surface S intersecting U in the curve in question will be 11n-24. Further, it has been shown that at a finite number of points the contact will be five-pointic. The number of these points has not yet been completely determined; but CLEBSCH has shown (Crelle, vol. lviii. p. 93) that it does not exceed n(11n-24) (14n-30). Similarly it appears that on every surface a curve may be drawn, at every point of which one of the principal tangent conics has a seven-pointic contact, and that at a finite number of points the contact will become eight-pointic. But into the discussion of these latter problems I do not propose to enter in the present communication.

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§ 1. Conditions for a Sextactic Point.

Let U=0 be the equation to the given surface, and V=0 that to the surface whose section by the plane w-kw'=0 is to have a six-pointic contact with the corresponding section of U at the point (x, y, z, t). Also, following the method of Professor CAYLEY (Philosophical Transactions, vol. cxlix. p. 371, and vol. clv. p. 545), let the coordinates of a point of U be considered as functions of a single parameter; then for the present purpose the coordinates of a point consecutive to (x, y, z, t) may be taken to be

$$x+dx+\frac{1}{6}d^{3}x+\frac{1}{6}d^{3}x+\frac{1}{90}d^{4}x+\frac{1}{90}d^{5}x, y+dy+\dots, z+dz+\dots, t+dt+\dots;$$
 (1)

and these values when substituted in U must satisfy the equation $U\!=\!0$. Then writing for shortness

$$\begin{array}{lll}
\partial_{1} = dx \, \partial_{s} + dy \, \partial_{y} + dz \, \partial_{s} + dt \, \partial_{t}, \\
\partial_{z} = d^{3}x \partial_{s} + d^{2}y \partial_{y} + d^{3}z \partial_{z} + d^{2}t \partial_{t}, \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
\partial_{s} = d^{3}x \partial_{s} + d^{3}y \partial_{y} + d^{3}z \partial_{z} + d^{3}t \partial_{t};
\end{array}$$

$$(2)$$

substituting the values (1) in U, expanding as far as terms of the fifth degree, and arranging the result in lines of the degrees 0, 1, ... 5, respectively, we shall have

$$0 = U \\ + \partial_{1}U \\ + \frac{1}{2}(\partial_{1}^{2} + \partial_{2})U \\ + \frac{1}{6}(\partial_{1}^{3} + 3\partial_{1}\partial_{2} + \partial_{3})U \\ + \frac{1}{24}(\partial_{1}^{4} + 6\partial_{1}^{2}\partial_{2} + 4\partial_{1}\partial_{3} + \partial_{4})U \\ + \frac{1}{120}(\partial_{1}^{5} + 10\partial_{1}^{2}\partial_{2} + 10\partial_{1}^{2}\partial_{3} + 15\partial_{1}\partial_{2}^{2} + 5\partial_{1}\partial_{4} + 10\partial_{2}\partial_{3} + \partial_{4})U,$$
(3)

each line of which, being of an order different from the rest, must separately vanish. Let us write, as usual,

$$\begin{aligned}
\partial_{x}U &= u , & \partial_{y}U &= v , & \partial_{z}U &= w , & \partial_{t}U &= k , \\
\partial_{x}^{2}U &= u_{i}, & \partial_{x}^{2}U &= v_{i}, & \partial_{x}^{2}U &= k_{i}, \\
\partial_{y}\partial_{x}U &= u', & \partial_{x}\partial_{x}U &= v', & \partial_{x}\partial_{y}U &= w', \\
\partial_{x}\partial_{t}U &= l', & \partial_{y}\partial_{t}U &= m', & \partial_{x}\partial_{t}U &= n'.
\end{aligned}$$
(4)

Then combining the equation $\partial_1 U = 0$ with the corresponding expression in V, viz. $\partial_1 V = 0$, we obtain the usual expressions for two-pointic contact, viz.

$$\frac{\partial_x V}{u} = \frac{\partial_y V}{v} = \frac{\partial_z V}{w} = \frac{\partial_z V}{k}; \qquad (5)$$

which, since U and V are both homogeneous in x, y, z, t, are equivalent to only two independent conditions. These conditions may be comprised in the single formula

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha, & \alpha', & u, & \partial_x V \\ \beta, & \beta', & v, & \partial_y V \\ \gamma, & \gamma', & w, & \partial_x V \\ \delta, & \delta', & k, & \delta_t V \end{vmatrix} = \Box V = 0, \dots (6)$$

where α , β , γ , δ ; α' , β' γ' , δ' are arbitrary quantities to which any values may be given, provided only that all the determinants of the matrix

$$\alpha$$
, β , γ , δ
 α' , β' , γ' , δ'

do not simultaneously vanish, since in that case the equation (6) would become nugatory. Comparing (6) with the equation $\partial_1 U=0$, and observing that the differentials dx, dy, dz, dt may be replaced by the determinants

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \\ \alpha', \beta', \gamma', \delta' \\ u, v, w, k \end{bmatrix}$$
 (7)

(the usual rule of signs being adopted, viz. the columns being taken in the cyclic order, the determinants are to have the signs +, -, +, -, respectively), it is clear that the equation $(\partial_1^2 + \partial_2)U = 0$, when combined with the corresponding equation in V, is equivalent to $\Box^2 V = 0$. Similarly, the equation $(\partial_1^2 + \partial_1 \partial_2 + \partial_3)U = 0$, combined with the corresponding equation in V, is equivalent to $\Box^3 V = 0$; and so on. Hence the series of conditions comprised in (3) may be expressed as follows:

$$V=0, \Box V=0, \Box^{2}V=0, \Box^{3}V=0, \Box^{4}V=0, \Box^{5}V=0, ... (8)$$

which correspond to equations (3) of my paper on Sextactic Points above quoted.

§ 2. Preliminary Transformation.

The next step is to effect a transformation of the first three equations of the system (8), corresponding to that given in § 1 of the same paper. As was stated in the introduction, the transformation does not throw out as factors any lineo-linear functions of the arbitrary quantities and the variables; but it reduces the expressions transformed to functions of such lineo-linear functions, viz. ϖ , and ϖ' .

Taking the columns of the matrix (7) two and two in the usual cyclic order, viz. $\beta, \gamma; \gamma, \alpha; \alpha, \beta; \alpha, \delta; \beta, \delta; \gamma, \delta$, and calling the determinants so formed $\alpha, b, c, f, g, h; i.e.$ writing

and writing, further,

$$\alpha x + \beta y + \gamma z + \delta t = \omega$$

$$\alpha' x + \beta' y + \gamma' z + \delta t' = \omega'$$

$$\alpha \omega' - \alpha \omega' = A$$

$$\beta' \omega - \beta \omega' = B$$

$$\gamma' \omega - \gamma \omega' = C$$

$$\delta' \omega - \delta \omega' = D,$$
(10)

the quantities a, b, ... A, B, ... will be found to satisfy the following relations, useful in subsequent transformations, viz.:—

$$bz - cy - ft = A$$

$$cx - az - gt = B$$

$$ay - bx - ht = C$$

$$fx + gy + hz = D$$

$$Ax + By + cz + Dt = 0$$

$$Bh - Cg + aD = 0$$

$$Cf - Ah + bD = 0$$

$$Ag - Bf + cD = 0$$

$$Ag + Bb + cC = 0$$

$$af + bg + ch = 0$$

$$\varpi_{\sigma}A = \alpha A - \alpha A, \quad \varpi_{\sigma}A = \alpha B - \beta A, \quad \varpi_{\sigma}A = \alpha C - \gamma A, \quad \varpi_{\sigma}A = \alpha D - \delta A,$$

$$\varpi_{\sigma}B = \beta A - \alpha B, \quad \varpi_{\sigma}B = \beta B - \beta B, \quad \varpi_{\sigma}B = \beta C - \gamma B, \quad \varpi_{\sigma}B = \beta D - \delta B,$$

$$\varpi_{\sigma}C = \gamma A - \alpha C, \quad \varpi_{\sigma}C = \gamma B - \beta C, \quad \varpi_{\sigma}C = \gamma C - \gamma C, \quad \varpi_{\sigma}C = \gamma D - \delta C,$$

$$\varpi_{\sigma}D = \delta A - \alpha D, \quad \varpi_{\sigma}D = \delta B - \beta D, \quad \varpi_{\sigma}D = \delta C - \gamma D, \quad \varpi_{\sigma}D = \delta D - \delta D.$$

And in terms of this notation the developed form of \square will be given by

$$-\Box = (vh - wg + ka)\partial_x + (wf - uh + kb)\partial_x + (ug - vf + kc)\partial_x + (-ua - vb - wc)\partial_t.$$
 (12)

This being premised, our first object is to investigate, as was done in the case of plane curves, an expression for $\Box^2 V$, which in virtue of (12) will consist of two parts: first, terms of the form $(h \Box v - g \Box w + a \Box k)\partial_x$..; and secondly, terms of the form $(vh - wg + ka)^2 \partial_x^2$... Referring to (12), we have

$$h \square v - g \square w + a \square k = \alpha, \ \alpha', \ u, \ hw' - gv' + al'$$

$$\beta, \ \beta', \ v, \ hv_1 - gv' + am'$$

$$\gamma, \ \gamma', \ w, \ hu' - gw_1 + an'$$

$$\delta, \ \delta', \ k, \ hm' - gn' + ak,$$

and writing

we may deduce

$$h \square v - g \square w + a \square p = -\{(vh - wg + pa)\partial_x + ...\}(vh - wg + pa)\}$$

$$= (n-1)^{-1}\{x\Phi - ... B, C, D\}$$

$$\alpha, \alpha', w', v', l'$$

$$\beta, \beta', v_1, u', w_1, n'$$

$$\gamma, \gamma', u', w_1, v_1, v'$$

$$\delta, \delta', l', m', k_1.$$

$$(14)$$

In the same way

D, l', m', n', k_1 ,

$$(n-1)^{3}(vh-wg+ka)^{3} = x^{3}\Phi - 2(n-1)x\Box(vh-wg+ka) - . B C D$$

$$B v_{1} u' m'$$

$$C u' w_{1} n'$$

$$D m' v' k.$$
(15)

Similarly, it will be found that

$$(n-1)^{2}(wf-uh+pb)(ug-vf+kc) = yz\Phi - 2(n-1)\{y \square (ug-vf+kc) + z \square (wf-uh+kb)\} - . A C D$$

$$A u_{1} v' l'$$

$$B w' u_{1} m'$$

$$D l' n' k_{1};$$
(16)

so that, m being the degree of V, we shall have, on collecting all the terms of the forms (15) and (16), the following expression:—

And if to each side of this equation we add

 $(n-1)^2\{(vh-wg+ka)^2\partial_x'+..\}\{(vh-wg+ka)\partial_xV+..\}=-(n-1)^2\{\partial_xV\square(vh-wg+ka)+..\}$ in which the operations ∂_x' , ... affect the quantities u, ... only and not ∂_xV , ...; then we shall have the full expression for \square^2V , viz.

$$-(n-1)^{2}\left(1+\frac{2(m-1)}{n-1}\right)\{\partial_{z}V\Box(vh-wg+ka)+...\}-.\quad \begin{array}{cccc} & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & \\ & & & \\ & &$$

Now referring to (5), and calling the ratios therein contained θ , and substituting θu for $\partial_x V$, θv for $\partial_y V$, ..., we have

Further, if we agree upon the proper mode of development we may write

which expression, by giving obvious values to \overline{A} , ..., \overline{f} , ..., may be written thus:

$$\overline{\mathfrak{A}}\mathfrak{d}_{2}^{*}V+..+2\overline{\mathfrak{f}}\mathfrak{d}_{p}\mathfrak{d}_{z}V+..=(\overline{\mathfrak{A}},\overline{\mathfrak{B}},\overline{\mathfrak{C}},\overline{\mathfrak{B}},\overline{\mathfrak{f}},\overline{\mathfrak{G}},\overline{\mathfrak{g}},\overline{\mathfrak{A}},\overline{\mathfrak{A}},\overline{\mathfrak{A}})(\mathfrak{d}_{z},\mathfrak{d}_{p},\mathfrak{d}_{z},\mathfrak{d}_{z})^{2}V. \quad (18)$$

Lastly, putting

the expression for \(\sigma^2 \text{V} \) finally becomes

$$\Delta V - \left(1 + \frac{2(m-1)}{n-1}\right)\theta H = 0,$$

and consequently the system V=0, $\Box V=0$, $\Box ^{\bullet}V=0$ may be replaced by

$$\frac{\partial_x V}{u} = \frac{\partial_y V}{v} = \frac{\partial_x V}{w} = \frac{\partial_t V}{k} = \left(1 + \frac{2(m-1)}{n-1}\right)^{-1} \frac{\Delta V}{H}. \quad (20)$$

If in the foregoing expressions we put $\alpha'=0$, $\beta'=0$, $\gamma'=0$, $\delta'=1$, $\delta=0$, t=0, we shall have the case of plane curves, and as the last suppositions give $\alpha'=0$, A=0, B=0, C=0, $D=\alpha x+\beta y+\gamma z$, the expression (20) then reduces itself, as it should, to that given in equation (16) of the memoir above quoted.

§ 3. Elimination of the Constants of the Quadric V.

Before proceeding to the application of the formulæ (20) to the present problem, it will be convenient to premise that if φ , ψ be any two rational integral and homogeneous functions of x, y, z, t, the nature of the operation Δ is such that

$$\Delta\phi\psi = \psi\Delta\phi + \varphi\Delta\psi + 2(\overline{\mathbf{A}}, \overline{\mathbf{S}}, \overline{\mathbf{C}}, \overline{\mathbf{B}}, \overline{\mathbf{f}}, \overline{\mathbf{G}}, \overline{\mathbf{B}}, \overline{\mathbf{I}}, \overline{\mathbf{A}}, $

also that

$$\Delta U = 4H$$
.

And further, if we write

$$\partial_s H = p$$
, $\partial_s H = q$, $\partial_s H = r$, $\partial_s H = s$, (22)

and if we suppose that the first four columns in the four following determinants are the same as the first four in the expression for H given in (19), then

$$\Delta u = p - 2 \dots 0, \ \Delta v = q - 2 \dots -c, \ \Delta w = r - 2 \dots b, \ \Delta k = s - 2 \dots -f \dots (23)$$
 $\vdots \quad c \quad \vdots \quad 0 \quad \vdots -a \quad \vdots -g$
 $\vdots \quad b \quad \vdots \quad a \quad \vdots \quad 0 \quad \vdots -h$
 $\vdots \quad f \quad \vdots \quad g \quad \vdots \quad h \quad \vdots \quad 0$
 $\vdots \quad 0 \quad \vdots \quad 0 \quad \vdots \quad 0$

from which it follows that

$$\Delta(vh - wg + ka) = gh - rg + sa$$

$$\Delta(wf - uh + kb) = rf - ph + sb$$

$$\Delta(ug - vf + kc) = pg - gf + sc$$

$$\Delta(-ua - vb - wc) = -pa - qb - rc,$$

$$(24)$$

the outstanding terms which occur in (23) having cancelled one another.

Furthermore, applying the formula (21) to the following products, and bearing in mind that $\partial_* V$, $\partial_* V$, . . are all linear in x, y, z, t, we have, by means of (24).

$$\Delta \partial_{s} V(vh - wg + ka) = \partial_{s} V(qh - rg + sa) + 2H(h \partial_{s} \partial_{y} V - g \partial_{s} \partial_{z} V + a \partial_{z} \partial_{t} V)$$

$$\Delta \partial_{y} V(wf - uh + kb) = \partial_{y} V(rf - ph + sb) + 2H(f \partial_{y} \partial_{z} V - h \partial_{x} \partial_{y} V + b \partial_{y} \partial_{t} V)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$(25)$$

so that

the coefficients of 2H in (25) having cancelled one another.

This being premised, let us return to the equations (20). These equations being perfectly general, we may replace V by any other function we please. Hence if we replace V by $\Box V$, the system resulting will be an equivalent for the system $\Box V = 0$, $\Box^2 V = 0$, $\Box^2 V = 0$, viz. the second, third, and fourth of the system (8). Making this substitution in (20), and remembering that $\Box V$ is of the degree n, so that the numerical factor $1 + \frac{2(m-1)}{n-1} = 3$, we have

or taking the first and last of these expressions, and substituting from (26),

$$\begin{split} \frac{3 \, \mathrm{H}}{u} \left\{ \alpha \quad \alpha' \quad u_1 \quad \partial_x \mathrm{V} + \alpha \quad \alpha' \quad u \quad \partial_x^2 \quad \mathrm{V} \right\} &= \alpha \quad \alpha' \quad p \quad \partial_x \mathrm{V} \\ \beta \quad \beta' \quad w' \quad \partial_y \mathrm{V} \quad \beta \quad \beta' \quad v \quad \partial_x \partial_y \mathrm{V} \quad \beta \quad \beta' \quad q \quad \partial_y \mathrm{V} \\ \gamma \quad \gamma' \quad v' \quad \partial_x \mathrm{V} \quad \gamma \quad \gamma' \quad w \quad \partial_x \partial_z \mathrm{V} \quad \gamma \quad \gamma' \quad r \quad \partial_x \mathrm{V} \\ \delta \quad \delta' \quad l' \quad \partial_t \mathrm{V} \quad \delta \quad \delta' \quad k \quad \partial_x \partial_t \mathrm{V} \quad \delta \quad \delta' \quad s \quad \partial_t \mathrm{V} ; \end{split}$$

or substituting θu for $\partial_x V$, ...

or

and if

$$V=(a, b, c, d, f, g, h, l, m, n)(x, y, z, t)^2, \dots (28)$$

the expression (27) is equivalent to

a{
$$\alpha$$
 α' u $(up-3Hu_1)x+3Hu$ }+h{..}+g{..}+l{..}=0 . . (29)
 β β' v $(uq-3Hw')x$
 γ γ' w $(ur-3Hv')x$
 δ δ' k $(us-3Hl')x$,

which contains only the four coefficients a, h, g, l. In this expression the coefficient of

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If, therefor,

efor,

$$X, Y, Z, T = \| A, B, C, D \|$$

 p, q, r, s
 $u, v, w, k \|$
 $P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4 = \| A B C D \| + \frac{2}{3}u \| \alpha \beta \gamma \delta \|$
 $u_1 w' v' l' \| \alpha v w k \| \alpha' \beta' \gamma' \delta' \|$
 $u v w k \| \alpha v w p \|$

(29) will take the form

$$(uX - 3HP_1)a + (uY - 3HP_2)h + (uZ - 3HP_3)g + (uT - 3HP_4)l = 0$$
, (31a)

to which might be added the analogous equations in h, b, f, m; g, f, c, n; l, m, n, d.

Another, and for some purposes a more convenient form may be given to these equations by the following transformation:

$$\mathbf{H} = (\mathfrak{A}', \dots)(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D})^2$$
, suppose;

$$\begin{split} & \therefore \, \boldsymbol{\vartheta}_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \boldsymbol{H} \!=\! (\boldsymbol{\vartheta}_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \! \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{A}}', \, \ldots) (\boldsymbol{A}, \boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D})^2 \! + \! \frac{2}{\varpi} \! (\boldsymbol{\mathfrak{A}}', \, \ldots) (\boldsymbol{A}, \boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}) (\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{A} \! - \! \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{A}, \, \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{A} \! - \! \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{B}, \, \boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{A} \! - \! \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{C}, \, \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{A} \! - \! \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{I} \\ & = \! (\boldsymbol{\vartheta}_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \! \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{A}}', \, \ldots) (\boldsymbol{A}, \boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D})^2 \! + \! \frac{2\boldsymbol{A}}{\varpi} \! (\boldsymbol{\mathfrak{A}}', \, \ldots) (\boldsymbol{A}, \boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}) (\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \boldsymbol{\delta}) \! - \! \frac{2\boldsymbol{\alpha}}{\varpi} \, \boldsymbol{H}. \end{split}$$

If, therefore, henceforward p, q, r, s represent the differential coefficients of H upon the supposition that Λ , B, C, D are regarded as constants, we shall have

so that

$$uX-3HP,=$$
 . B C D $=(n-2)^{-1}$ Ax B C D $3H$ q r s px q r s u u' v' l' $-u+u_1x$ u' v' l' . v w k ux v w k

and if P, Q, R, S represent the determinants formed from the first three together with the fourth, the fifth, the sixth, and the seventh columns respectively of the following matrix:

and if, as was indicated above, H in the transformed expression is supposed to be differentiated without reference to A, B, C, D; then

$$(n-2)(uX-3HP_1) = -uX+xP$$

 $(n-2)(uY-3HP_2) = -uY+yP$
 $(n-2)(uZ-3HP_3) = -uZ+zP$
 $(n-2)(uT-3HP_4) = -uT+tP$,

and the equations, of which (31 a) is one, take the form

Representing any one of these equations, say, the first, by W=0, the equations \Box V=0, \Box V=0, \Box V=0 may be replaced by a system of the form (20); and writing them in the form $\partial_x W = \theta_1 u$, $\partial_y W = \theta_1 v$, ..., where θ_1 is indeterminate, we may from the five equations so written eliminate the five quantities a, h, g, l, θ_1 ; and the resulting equation takes the form

where v is a numerical factor.

§ 4. Determination of the extraneous factors.

The degree of the equation (32) in its present form is 23n-32; but it admits of reduction, in the first place, as follows. Since the equation

$$\mathbf{A}(u\mathbf{X} - x\mathbf{P}) + \mathbf{B}(u\mathbf{Y} - y\mathbf{P}) + \mathbf{C}(u\mathbf{Z} - z\mathbf{P}) + \mathbf{D}(u\mathbf{T} - t\mathbf{P}) = 0$$

is identically satisfied, we have by differentiation, and by substitution of the values of $\partial_x A$, ... from (11),

$$\begin{split} & A \partial_x (uX - xP) + B \partial_x (uY - yP) + C \partial_x (uZ - zP) + D \partial_x (uT - tP) \\ &= -(uX - xP) \partial_x A - (uY - yP) \partial_x B - (uZ - zP) \partial_x C - (uT - tP) \partial_x D \\ &= -\frac{1}{\sigma} \{(uX - xP)(\alpha A - \alpha A) + (uY - yP)(\alpha B - \beta A) + (uZ - zP)(\alpha C - \gamma A) + (uT - tP)(\alpha D - \delta A) \} \\ &= \frac{A}{\sigma} \{\alpha(uX - xP) + \beta(uY - yP) + \gamma(uZ - zP) + \delta(uT - tP)\} \\ &= \frac{A}{\sigma} K, \text{ suppose.} \end{split}$$

From this we may deduce the following system:

$$A\partial_{s}(uX-xP) + B\partial_{s}(uY-yP) + \dots = A\frac{k}{\pi}$$

$$A\partial_{y}(uX-xP) + B\partial_{y}(uY-yP) + \dots = B\frac{k}{\pi}$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots$$
(33)

Again, since $\Delta A=0$, $\Delta B=0$, $\Delta C=0$, $\Delta D=0$, it follows that

$$\begin{split} & A\Delta(u\mathbf{X} - x\mathbf{P}) + B\Delta(u\mathbf{Y} - y\mathbf{P}) + C\Delta(u\mathbf{Z} - z\mathbf{P}) + D\Delta(u\mathbf{T} - t\mathbf{P}) \\ &= -\frac{2}{\pi} \{ (\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(\alpha\mathbf{A} - \alpha\mathbf{A}, \alpha\mathbf{B} - \beta\mathbf{A}, \alpha\mathbf{C} - \gamma\mathbf{A}, \alpha\mathbf{D} - \delta\mathbf{A})(\delta_x, \delta_y, \delta_x, \delta_t)(u\mathbf{X} - x\mathbf{P}) \\ & + (\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(\beta\mathbf{A} - \alpha\mathbf{B}, \beta\mathbf{B} - \beta\mathbf{B}, \beta\mathbf{C} - \gamma\mathbf{B}, \beta\mathbf{D} - \delta\mathbf{B})(\delta_x, \delta_y, \delta_x, \delta_t)(u\mathbf{Y} - y\mathbf{P}) \\ & + (\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(\gamma\mathbf{A} - \alpha\mathbf{C}, \gamma\mathbf{B} - \beta\mathbf{C}, \gamma\mathbf{C} - \gamma\mathbf{C}, \gamma\mathbf{D} - \delta\mathbf{C})(\delta_x, \delta_y, \delta_x, \delta_t)(u\mathbf{Z} - z\mathbf{P}) \\ & + (\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(\delta\mathbf{A} - \alpha\mathbf{D}, \delta\mathbf{B} - \beta\mathbf{D}, \delta\mathbf{C} - \gamma\mathbf{D}, \delta\mathbf{D} - \delta\mathbf{D})(\delta_x, \delta_y, \delta_x, \delta_t)(u\mathbf{T} - t\mathbf{P}) \}. \end{split}$$

But since

the expression above written reduces itself to

$$\begin{split} &\frac{2}{\varpi}\{\mathbf{A}(\mathfrak{A},...)(\alpha,\beta,\gamma,\delta)(\partial_{s},\partial_{g},\partial_{z},\partial_{t})(u\mathbf{X}-x\mathbf{P})\\ &+\mathbf{B}(\mathfrak{A},...)(\alpha,\beta,\gamma,\delta)(\partial_{s},\partial_{g},\partial_{s},\partial_{t})(u\mathbf{Y}-y\mathbf{P})\\ &+\mathbf{C}(\mathfrak{A},...)(\alpha,\beta,\gamma,\delta)(\partial_{s},\partial_{g},\partial_{s},\partial_{t})(u\mathbf{Z}-z\mathbf{P})\\ &+\mathbf{D}(\mathfrak{A},...)(\alpha,\beta,\gamma,\delta)(\partial_{s},\partial_{g},\partial_{s},\partial_{t})(u\mathbf{Y}-t\mathbf{P})\}\\ &=\frac{2}{\varpi}\{\mathfrak{A},...)(\alpha,\beta,\gamma,\delta)[(u\mathbf{X}-x\mathbf{P})\partial_{s}\mathbf{A}+(u\mathbf{Y}-y\mathbf{P})\partial_{s}\mathbf{B}+...\\ &\qquad\qquad\qquad (u\mathbf{X}-x\mathbf{P})\partial_{g}\mathbf{A}+(u\mathbf{Y}-y\mathbf{P})\partial_{g}\mathbf{B}+...\\ &\qquad\qquad \vdots &\qquad\qquad \vdots \\ &=-\frac{2k}{\varpi^{2}}(\mathfrak{A},...)(\alpha,\beta,\gamma,\delta)(\mathbf{A},\mathbf{B},\mathbf{C},\mathbf{D})\\ &-0 \end{split}$$

i. e.
$$A\Delta(uX-xP) + B\Delta(uY+yP) + C\Delta(uZ-zP) + D\Delta(uT-tP) = 0. \quad . \quad (35)$$

Hence, if we multiply the first three columns of (32) by A, B, C respectively, and add them to the fourth multiplied by D, the whole equation will be divisible by $\frac{K}{\sigma}$; and on the division being made the equation in question will take the form

which is of the degree 18n-24.

Next it may be shown that H is a factor of this expression. For when H=0 the following equations subsist, Ax + By + Cz + Dt = 0

$$p x+qy+rz+st =0$$

$$u x+vy+wz+kt =0,$$

whence by elimination

$$\frac{X}{x} = \frac{Y}{y} = \frac{Z}{z} = \frac{T}{t} = \frac{P}{(n-1)u};$$
 (37)

so that, omitting a numerical factor, aX-xP will be replaced by xP, and (36) will then become

But by adding x (line 1)+y (line 2)+z (line 3) to t (line 4), the whole of line 4 will be divisible by P and a numerical factor; so that the expression becomes

$$x\partial_x P + P$$
 $y\partial_z P$ $z_*\partial P$ A u $x\partial_y P$ $y\partial_y P + P$ $z\partial_y P$ B v $x\partial_z P$ $y\partial_z P$ $z\partial_z P + P$ C w x y z . . $x\Delta P + 2(\mathfrak{A}\partial_z + \ldots)P$ $y\Delta P + 2(\mathfrak{A}\partial_z + \ldots)P$ $z\Delta P + 2(\mathfrak{A}\partial_z + \ldots)P$.

Again, subtracting d.P line 4 from line 1

∂_yP line 4 from line 2

∂_zP line 4 from line 3

 ΔP line 4 from line 5,

and dividing throughout by 2, the expression is reduced to

lastly, subtracting

and

A (column 1) +B (column 2) +C (column 3) from P (column 4),

u (column 1) +v (column 2) +w (column 3) from P (column 5),

we have (remembering that H=0)

which vanishes identically. Hence H is a factor of (36); and on dividing it out the degree of the expression (36) is reduced to 15n-20.

It remains now to be shown that u is likewise a factor of (36). Putting u=0, that equation becomes

and following a process similar to that adopted in the former transformation, this may be reduced to

and thence to

 Θ and Ψ being two functions, with the exact forms of which we are not concerned. The expression then takes the form of the product of two factors, viz. $(D\Psi - k\Theta)t$, and

Hence u is a factor of (36). Now that equation as it stands is of the third degree in u; so that u being divided out it is reduced to the second degree, say, to the form $\lambda u^2 + \mu u + \varrho = 0$. Now referring to (31), and forming the equations in h, b, f, m; g,..; l,..., the equations corresponding to (36) may by a similar process be shown to be divisible by v, w, k; and those divisions having been effected, the equations in question will be reduced to the forms $\lambda v^2 + \mu_1 v + \varrho_1 = 0$,..., in which it is to be observed, from the symmetry of the expressions, that the coefficients of u^2 , v^2 ,... are the same. But as these equations (viz. those in u, v, w, k) all lead to the same result, namely the determination of the sextactic points, they can differ from one another only by factors. Hence, as in my memoir before quoted, equation (50), we must have identically

$$-\lambda = \frac{\mu^{\gamma} + \varrho}{u^2} = \frac{\mu_1 v + \varrho_1}{v^2} = \dots, \qquad (38)$$

which can hold good in general, only in virtue of μ being divisible by u, and g by u^2 , μ_1 being divisible by v_1 and g_1 by v^2 , and so on. Hence (36) is divisible not only by u but by u^3 ; and that division having been effected, the degree of (36) will be reduced to 12n-17.

This completes the enumeration of the extraneous factors; but although the degree of the equation (36) cannot in general be depressed below 12n-17, we have yet to show that, as stated in the introduction, the variables enter to the degree 10 in the form of lineo-linear functions of the arbitrary quantities. From what has gone before, it is clear that the quantities X, Y, Z, P, H involved in (36), are all functions of x, y, z, t, A, B, C. D only, that is to say, not of $\alpha, \beta, \ldots \alpha', \beta', \ldots$, except in so far as they are included in A, B, C, D. It remains to be proved that this is still the case after the differentiations and operation Δ involved in (36) have been performed. For this purpose let φ represent any function of x, y, z, t, A, B, C, D, and let ∂'_{z}, \ldots indicate differentiation with respect to x, \ldots so far as they appear explicitly in φ , irrespectively of A, B, C, D, then

$$\begin{split} & \partial_z x = \partial_A \varphi \partial_z A + \partial_B \varphi \partial_z B + \ldots + \partial_z' \varphi \,; \\ & \therefore \, \varpi \partial_z \varphi = A(\alpha \partial_A + \beta \partial_B + \ldots) \varphi - \alpha (A \partial_A + B \partial_B + \ldots) \varphi + \varpi \partial_z' \varphi \,; \end{split}$$

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and if ϕ be of the degree m in A, B, C, D, and $\nabla = \alpha \partial_A + \beta \partial_B + \ldots$, it follows that

$$\begin{array}{lll} \varpi \partial_{z} \phi = A \nabla \phi - m \alpha \phi + \varpi \partial_{z}' \phi \\ \varpi \partial_{y} \phi = B \nabla \phi - m \beta \phi + \varpi \partial_{y}' \phi \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{array}$$

$$(39)$$

Again,

$$\phi_x \delta_x \phi = \omega_x \delta_x \omega - \phi_x \delta_x \omega = \phi_x^2 \delta_x \omega = \phi_x \omega$$

whence

$$\begin{array}{lll}
\varpi^{2}\partial_{x}^{2}\varphi &= (A\nabla - \overline{m+1}\alpha + \varpi\partial_{x}^{\prime})(A\nabla - m\alpha + \varpi\partial_{x}^{\prime})\varphi \\
\varpi^{2}\partial_{y}\partial_{x}\varphi &= (B\nabla - \overline{m+1}\beta + \varpi\partial_{y}^{\prime})(A\nabla - m\alpha + \varpi\partial_{x}^{\prime})\varphi \\
&: : : (40)
\end{array}$$

whence, again,

$$\begin{split} & \boldsymbol{\varpi}^2(\boldsymbol{\Im}\boldsymbol{\partial}_x^2 + \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{B}}\boldsymbol{\partial}_y\boldsymbol{\partial}_x + ..)\boldsymbol{\varphi} = \{ -(m+1)(\boldsymbol{\Im}\boldsymbol{\alpha} + \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{B}}\boldsymbol{\beta} + ..) + \boldsymbol{\varpi}(\boldsymbol{\Im}\boldsymbol{\partial}_x' + \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{B}}\boldsymbol{\partial}_y' + ..) \} (\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\nabla - m\boldsymbol{\alpha} + \boldsymbol{\varpi}\boldsymbol{\partial}_x')\boldsymbol{\varphi} \\ & \boldsymbol{\varpi}^2(\boldsymbol{\mathfrak{B}}\boldsymbol{\partial}_x\boldsymbol{\partial}_y + \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{B}}\boldsymbol{\partial}_y^2 + ..)\boldsymbol{\varphi} = \{ -(m+1)\boldsymbol{\mathfrak{B}}\boldsymbol{\alpha} + \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{B}}\boldsymbol{\beta} + ..) + \boldsymbol{\varpi}(\boldsymbol{\mathfrak{B}}\boldsymbol{\partial}_x' + \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{B}}\boldsymbol{\partial}_y' + ..) \} (\boldsymbol{B}\nabla - m\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varpi}\boldsymbol{\partial}_y')\boldsymbol{\varphi} ; \\ & : : : \end{split}$$

and combining these expressions,

$$\boldsymbol{\varpi}^{2}(\boldsymbol{\mathfrak{A}}, \ldots)(\boldsymbol{\partial}_{x}, \ldots)^{2}\boldsymbol{\varphi} = m(m+1)(\boldsymbol{\mathfrak{A}}, \ldots)(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \ldots)^{2}\boldsymbol{\varphi} - (2m+1)\boldsymbol{\varpi}(\boldsymbol{\mathfrak{A}}, \ldots)(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \ldots)(\boldsymbol{\partial}'_{x}, \ldots)\boldsymbol{\varphi} + \boldsymbol{\varpi}^{2}(\boldsymbol{\mathfrak{A}}, \ldots)(\boldsymbol{\partial}'_{x}, \ldots)^{2}\boldsymbol{\varphi}.$$

Hence

$$= \boldsymbol{\varpi}^{-4} - m\alpha \boldsymbol{\varphi} + \boldsymbol{\varpi} \partial_{z}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \qquad \qquad \dots \qquad \mathbf{A} \qquad \boldsymbol{u} \\ - m\beta \boldsymbol{\varphi} + \boldsymbol{\varpi} \partial_{z}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \qquad \qquad \dots \qquad \mathbf{B} \qquad \boldsymbol{v} \\ - m\gamma \boldsymbol{\varphi} + \boldsymbol{\varpi} \partial_{z}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \qquad \qquad \dots \qquad \mathbf{C} \qquad \boldsymbol{w} \\ - m\delta \boldsymbol{\varphi} + \boldsymbol{\varpi} \partial_{z} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \qquad \qquad \dots \qquad \mathbf{D} \qquad \boldsymbol{k} \\ \begin{pmatrix} m(m+1) (\boldsymbol{\mathfrak{A}}, \dots)(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \dots)^{2} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \\ - (2m+1) \boldsymbol{\varpi} (\boldsymbol{\mathfrak{A}}, \dots)(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \dots)(\partial_{z}^{\prime}, \dots) \boldsymbol{\varphi} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \dots \qquad \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{H}, \\ + \mathbf{m}^{2} (\boldsymbol{\mathfrak{A}}, \dots)(\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\prime}, \dots)^{2} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \qquad \qquad \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{H}, \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

which, by a method precisely similar to that followed above in investigating the extraneous factors, may be reduced to

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which is the same as if A, B, C, D had not been affected by the differentiations or by the operation Δ . The expression is therefore a function of x, y, z, t, A, B, C, D, and not of α , β , ..., α' , β' , ..., excepting so far as they appear in A, B, C, D. If, therefore, we put $\varphi = uX - xP$, $\varphi_1 = uY - yP$, $\varphi_2 = uZ - zP$, we conclude that (36), when divested of its extraneous factors (say, Ω), is a function explicitly of the degree 12n - 27 in x, y, z, t, and of the degree 10 in A, B, C, D. But A, B, C, D are themselves linear homogeneous functions of π , π' ; so that the expression in question may be regarded as explicitly of the degree 12n - 27 in x, y, z, t, and of the degree 10 in π , π' . This equation, solved for $k' = \pi : \pi'$, will consequently give ten positions of the cutting plane all passing through the point (x, y, z, t), for which the curve of section is sextactic at the point. Hence the theorem, "If L be any line through any point P of a surface, ten conics may be drawn in planes passing through L having six-pointic contact with the surface at the point."

It is to be observed that the plane of section is not necessarily normal; but if the line whose six coordinates are (a, b, c, f, g, h) be made to coincide with the normal at the point whose rectangular coordinates are x, y, z, it will follow that

$$a:b:c=u:v:w$$

$$Au+Bv+Cw=0$$

$$fu+gv+hw=0,$$

with other relations which would abbreviate, although not essentially simplify, some previous expressions. The results of placing the line in the tangent plane are noticed below.

§ 5. Note on tangents of more than two-pointic contact.

If V, instead of being as hitherto quadric, be linear, we shall have the case of tangents to the curve of section of U with the plane $\varpi - k'\varpi' = 0$. And if the contact be three-pointic, each of the ratios $\partial_z V: u, \partial_{\varphi} V: v, \ldots$ will be, in virtue of (20) of § 2, equal to $\Delta V: H$. But since V is linear $\Delta V = 0$, and consequently the condition for a tangent of three-pointic contact is H = 0. Now

$$H = (\mathfrak{A}, ...)(A, B, C, D)^{2}$$

$$= (\mathfrak{A}, ...)(\alpha'\varpi - \alpha\varpi', \beta'\varpi - \beta\varpi', \gamma'\varpi - \gamma\varpi', \delta'\varpi - \delta\varpi')^{2}$$

$$= \varpi'^{2}(\mathfrak{A}, ...)(\alpha'k' - \alpha, \beta'k' - \beta, \gamma'k' - \gamma, \delta'k' - \delta)^{2};$$

so that the condition H=0 may be written

 $(\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(\alpha', \beta', \gamma', \delta')^2 k'^2 - 2(\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(\alpha', \beta', \gamma', \delta')(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta)k + (\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta)^2 = 0,$ (41) which will determine two values of k, and consequently two positions of the cutting plane for which the tangent line has three-pointic contact.

It may be noticed that in the solution of the equation above written there occurs the following expression:

$$(\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(\alpha', \beta', \gamma', \delta')^2 \cdot (\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta)^2 - [(\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(\alpha', \beta', \gamma', \delta')(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta)]^2.$$
MDCCCLXX. 2 s

But if H_0 represent the Hessian of U, then $BC - f^2 = H_0(v_1w_1 - w^2)$, ...; and the expression in question will be equal to the product of the Hessian into

$$(v_1w_1-u'^2, w_1u_1-v'^2, \ldots v'w'-u_1u', \ldots)(a, b, c, f, g, h)^s,$$

where a, b, ... f, ... are the six coordinates of the line about which the cutting plane is supposed to revolve, as given in equations (9). The two positions of the cutting plane will coincide, if either the Hessian or this expression vanishes; the latter, regarded as a relation between the coordinates of the line, expresses the condition that the plane of section may contain both principal tangents, i.e. may be the tangent plane, as may be verified by the following considerations. If the plane of section coincide with the tangent plane, then

A:B:C:D=
$$u:v:w:k$$
; or $\varpi\alpha'=\varpi'\alpha+\lambda u$, $\varpi\beta'=\varpi'\beta+\lambda v$, ...

which, being substituted in the expression in question, will cause it to vanish identically; or we may proceed otherwise, thus: regarding A, B, C, D as the constants of the cutting plane, the equation H=0 is

$$(\mathfrak{A}, ..)(A, B, C, D)^s = 0; (42)$$

the equation of the plane itself may be written

$$A\xi + B\eta + C\zeta + D\vartheta = 0;$$
 (43)

and since this plane passes through the point (x, y, z, t), we have also

$$Ax+By+Cz+Dt=0; (44)$$

by means of which three equations the ratios A:B:C:D may be determined. By a process quoted by Professor Cayley (Quarterly Journal of Mathematics, vol. vii. p. 1), the solution of these equations depends upon the square root of the quantity

$$\mathfrak{A}$$
, \mathfrak{B} , \mathfrak{G} , \mathfrak{L} , x , $\xi = H_0 u_1$, w' , v' , l' , x , ξ . . . (45)

$$\bullet$$
, \bullet ,

$$\mathfrak{G}, \ \mathfrak{F}, \ \mathfrak{C}, \ \mathfrak{H}, \ z, \ \zeta \qquad v', \ u', \ v_i, \ n', \ z, \ \zeta$$

2,
$$\mathfrak{M}$$
, \mathfrak{P} , \mathfrak{D} , t , \mathfrak{D}

$$x, y, z, t$$
 . x, y, z, t .

which is in fact identical with the expression (41).

The locus of the points for which one of the principal tangents meets a given line, say, the line $(a_1, b_1, c_1, f_1, g_1, h_1)$, will be found by eliminating A, B, C, D from the equations (42), (43), (44), combined with the following condition:

$$af_1+bf_1+ch_1+a_1f+b_1g+c_1h=0$$
. (46)

But since the principal tangent is the intersection of the plane (A, B, C, D) with the tangent plane, we have

Substituting these values, the condition above written becomes

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{A}(& vh_1 - wg_1 + ka_1) \\ & + \mathbf{B}(& wf_1 - uh_1 + kb_1) \\ & + \mathbf{C}(& ug_1 - vf_1 + kc_1) \\ & + \mathbf{D}(-ua_1 - vb_1 - wc_1) = 0, \end{aligned}$$

and the ratios A: B: C: D will be expressed by the determinants of the matrix

But if by analogy with (11) we write

$$b_1z - c_1y - f_1t = A_1,$$

 $c_1x - a_1z - g_1t = B_1,$
 $a_1y - b_1x - h_1t = C_1,$
 $f_1x + g_1y + h_1z = D_1,$
 $\xi \quad u + \eta \quad v + \xi w + \Im \quad k = U_1.$

it will be found that, putting

$$A_1\xi + B_1\eta + C_1\zeta + D_1\vartheta = E_1,$$

the ratios A: B: C: D are equal to

$$A_1U_1 - E_1u : B_1U_1 - E_1v : C_1U_1 - E_1w : D_1U_1 - E_1u ;$$

and consequently when these are substituted in H the terms having E_1 for a coefficient will vanish, and the equation of the locus resulting will be

$$(\mathfrak{A}, ..)(A_1, B_1, C_1, D_1)^2 = 0...$$
 (48)

To find the locus of points at which one of the principal tangents has a four-pointic contact with the surface, we must add to the equation H=0 the following, viz. $\Box H=0$, which, as has been shown in a former part of this paper, may be replaced by any one of the group

$$\begin{vmatrix} A & , & B & , & C & , & D \\ u & , & v & , & w & , & k \\ \partial_{s}H, & \partial_{s}H, & \partial_{\epsilon}H, & \partial_{\epsilon}H & \partial_{\epsilon}H \end{vmatrix} = 0. (49)$$

But, remembering that p, q, r, s represent the differential coefficients of H with respect to x, y, z, t, on the supposition that A, B, C, D are constant, and writing

$$(\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(A, B, C, D)(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta) = H',$$

it is easy to deduce the following system:

$$\partial_{\sigma} \mathbf{H} = p + \frac{2\mathbf{A}}{\varpi} \mathbf{H}'$$
 $\partial_{\sigma} \mathbf{H} = q + \frac{2\mathbf{B}}{\varpi} \mathbf{H}'$.

But $\Box H = 0$ is equivalent to the system $\partial_{x}H = \theta_{1}u$, $\partial_{x}H = \theta_{1}v$, ... i. e. to

$$wp+2AH'=\theta_1u$$
 or $2H'A=\theta_1u-wp$
 $wq+2BH'=\theta_1v$ $2H'B=\theta_1v-wq$
 $wr+2CH'=\theta_1w$ $2H'C=\theta_1w-wr$
 $ws+2DH'=\theta_1k$ $2H'D=\theta_1k-ws$.

Substituting these values of A, B, C, D, in the equation H=0, the terms having θ_i for a coefficient will vanish, and the equation will take the form

$$(\mathfrak{A}, ...)(p, q, r, s)^2 = 0.$$
 (50)

But from what has gone before it is clear that H when resolved into its factors is of the form $\chi^2 - \mathbf{H}_0 \mu^2 \psi^2$, where $\mathbf{H}_0 \mu^2$ represents the expression (45); hence putting $\chi^2 = \mu^2 \psi^2 \varphi^2$, $\frac{\mathbf{H}}{\mu^2 \psi^2} = \varphi^2 - \mathbf{H}_0$; and consequently since $\mathbf{H} = 0$, $p = 2\varphi \partial_x \varphi - \partial_x \mathbf{H}_0$. But $\varphi = \pm \sqrt{\mathbf{H}_0}$, the upper or lower sign being taken according as one or other principal tangent is the subject of consideration. Substituting then in the equation (50), we have

$$(\mathfrak{A}, ..)(2\sqrt{\overline{H}}_{\mathfrak{o}}\partial_{\mathfrak{o}}\varphi \pm \partial_{\mathfrak{o}}H_{\mathfrak{o}}, 2\sqrt{\overline{H}}_{\mathfrak{o}}\partial_{\mathfrak{o}}\varphi \pm \partial_{\mathfrak{o}}H_{\mathfrak{o}}, ..)^{\mathfrak{s}}=0.$$

But since we are seeking the condition under which either one or the other principal tangent may have four-pointic contact, the terms of ambiguous sign must disappear; and the condition required will take the form

$$4H_0(\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(\partial_x \varphi, \partial_y \varphi, \ldots)^2 + (\mathfrak{A}, \ldots)(\partial_x H_0, \partial_y H_0, \ldots)^2 = 0,$$

which is of the degree 11n-24, and may be compared with Clebsch's form, viz. $(\mathfrak{A}, ...)(\partial_{r}H_{0}, ...)^{2}-4H_{0}\Phi$; but the comparison of the terms in φ and Φ appears difficult.

The additional condition for a five-pointic contact on the part of one of the principal tangents will be $\Box^2H=0$; or, having reference to (20) and to the consideration that H=0, the condition will be $\Delta H=0$. But the further discussion of this question I postpone to another occasion.

XVII. On the Relation between the Sun's Altitude and the Chemical Intensity of Total Daylight in a Cloudless Sky. By Henry E. Roscoe, F.R.S., Professor of Chemistry in Owens College, Manchester, and T. E. Thorpe, Ph.D., Professor of Chemistry in Anderson's University, Glasgow.

Received March 3,-Read March 31, 1870.

The difficulty of securing in England a sufficient number of consecutive cloudless days to render it possible to determine with any degree of accuracy the relation existing between the sun's altitude and the chemical intensity of total daylight, induced us to undertake a series of measurements on the west coast of Portugal, where during the months of July and August the sky is generally cloudless. The method of measurement employed was that described by one of us in previous communications to the Royal Society, founded upon an exact estimation of the tint which standard sensitive paper assumes when exposed for a given time to the action of daylight*.

The observations, the results of which are given in the following communication, were made in the autumn of 1867, through the kindness of Thomas Creswell, Esq., at the Quinta do Estero Furado, situated on the flat table-land on the southern side of the Tagus, about $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the south-cast of Lisbon, lat. 38° 40' N. and long. 9° W. The sensitive paper was exposed in the plane of the horizon, the instrument being placed upon a carefully levelled stand at the height of 4 feet 5 inches above the level of the ground in a sandy field having a clear horizon, the most considerable object in the neighbourhood being a house distant 130 paces to the west, the roof of which subtended an angle of 7° with the plane of the paper.

All the experiments were made in the following order:-

- 1. The chemical action of total daylight was observed in the ordinary manner.
- 2. The chemical action of the diffused daylight was then observed by throwing or to the exposed portion of the sensitive paper the shadow of a small blackened brass ball placed at such a distance that its apparent diameter seen from the position of the paper was slightly larger than that of the sun's disk.
- 3. The chemical action of total daylight was again determined.
- 4. That of the diffused daylight was a second time ascertained.

The means of Observations 1 and 3 and of 2 and 4 were then taken. The sun's altitude was determined immediately before and immediately after the foregoing observations of chemical intensity, the altitude at the time of observation being ascertained by interpolation. A box-sextant made by Worthington, of London, was employed with an

^{*} Bakerian Lecture, Philosophical Transactions, 1865, Part II. p. 605.

artificial horizon of black glass, which was carefully levelled before each observation. The watch used could be read to quarter seconds, and the Lisbon mean time was obtained by regulating the watch by means of the time-ball of the Lisbon Naval Arsenal, which falls at 1 P.M., and afterwards ascertaining the amount of the watch's daily variation. In cases in which the altitude could not be determined by experiment, it has been calculated from the following formula,

 $\cos \varphi = \cos \delta \cdot \cos t \cdot \cos p + \sin \delta \sin p$,

in which

δ represents the sun's declination,

p represents the latitude of the place=38° 40′,
and t represents the sun's hour-angle.

It was necessary, in the first place, to ascertain what error was introduced into the determination of diffused daylight by any accidental variation in the distance of the brass ball from the sensitive paper. A series of experiments were made with this object on August 8th, 1867, at 9 A.M., the blackened ball being placed at distances varying from 140 millims. to 230 millims. above the silvered paper. These experiments showed that the ball placed at

140	millims.	gave 1	mean	reading	143.3	or Che	emical	Intensity	0.110
160	"	,,		,,	143.6	,	.,	,,	0.116
190	,,	,,		,,	141.9		,,	**	0.116
230	,,	,,		,,	136.8	,	,,	**	0.118

consequently the height of the blackened ball may safely vary between 140 and 190 millims, without producing any appreciable error.

The following gives the elements of an observation, and may serve as a sample of the others, 134 in number, which were all carried out in a manner exactly similar, and form the data from which are derived the conclusions drawn in this paper.

August 5th, 1867.

Determination of Altitude.—

	Observed time.	Calculated time.	Observed double altitude.	Sun's altitude.
1st Observation.	h m 3 37 р.м.	h m 3 57 p.m.	$7\mathring{1}$ $4\acute{2}$	35° 51
2nd "	3 41 р.м.	4 1 г.м.	70 00	35 00

Determination of Chemical Intensity.—

Observed time 3h 39m to 3h 40m. Calculated time 3h 59m to 4h.

		1	Reading	s on calibrated strip.	Mean.
I.	Total day	light	100,	97, 97, 105, 103, 106, 102	=101
II.	Diffused		110,	108, 112, 116, 116, 117, 108, 110	=112
III.	Total .		104,	100, 100, 97, 100, 102, 107, 105, 10	03 = 102
IV.	Diffused		108	112, 113, 108, 115, 114, 107	-111

By reference to the calibration Table of the strip the following numbers were found to correspond to the above readings.

Time 3h 59m P.M. Sun's altitude 35° 25'.

Observed Chemical Intensity .-

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Direct sunlight.} & \text{Diffused light.} & \text{Total daylight.} \\ \textbf{0.069} & \textbf{0.138} & \textbf{0.207} \end{array}$

The meteorological conditions of the time of observation were also carefully observed.

Clouds 0.0. Fine breeze, S.S.W. { Dry-bulb thermometer 81°·0 F. Wet-bulb thermometer 69°·0 F. Aqueous vapour in 1 cub. ft. 5·7 grains. Relative humidity=50.

One of the 134 sets of observations was made as nearly as possible every hour, and they thus naturally fall into seven groups, viz.—

(1) Six hours from noon, (2) five hours from noon, (3) four hours from noon, (4) three hours from noon, (5) two hours from noon, (6) one hour from noon, and (7) noon.

Each of the first six of these groups contains two separate sets of observations, viz. those made before noon marked A.M., and those made after noon and marked P.M.

One of us has already pointed out*, from measurements made at Kew, that the mean chemical intensity of total daylight for hours equidistant from noon is the same. That this result is a general one is fully borne out by the inspection of the following Tables, giving the results of 134 series of observations; the single experiments made at the same hour being grouped together, and those of the hours equidistant from noon being placed side by side.

TABLE I. (1.)

	A.M.						i a			P.M.			
Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitude.	Sun.	Sky.	Total.	Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitude.	Sun.	Sky.	Total.
11. 29. 48.	6 9 12	h m 6 4 6 6 6 9	10 33 10 15 10 20 31 08 10 23	000 -001 -001 -002	·049 ·033 ·040 ·122 ·041	-049 -034 -041 -124 -041	19. 28. 40. 47. 57. 66. 86. 97. 107. 118.	6 8 9 10 12 21 22 23 24 26 27 28	h m 6 0 6 2 6 0 6 0 5 59 5 51 6 0 5 47 5 49 5 51 5 53	11 31 10 43 10 58 10 50 10 22 10 02	-000 -000 -000 -002 -000 -000 -000 -000	·056 ·041 ·034 ·050 ·031 ·031 ·026 ·038 ·031 ·029 ·029 ·423	-056 -041 -034 -052 -034 -031 -026 -040 -031 -029 -022 -427

^{*} Philosophical Transactions, 1867, p. 558.

TABLE I. (2.)

			A.M.							P.M.			
Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitude.	Sun.	Sky.	Total.	Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitude.	Sun.	Sky.	Total.
12. 30. 49. 87. 108. 119. 129.	6 9 12 24 27 23 29 30	h m 7 1 7 2 7 1 6 54 7 6 7 1 6 59 Means	20 59 21 10 20 20 17 29 19 17 18 18 18 24 17 56 153 53	-024 -023 -032 -017 -016 -016 -017 -162	·095 ·062 ·063 ·058 ·057 ·059 ·047 ·050 ·491	·119 ·085 ·095 ·075 ·074 ·075 ·063 ·067 -653	18. 27. 39. 46. 66. 75. 85. 96. 106.	6 8 9 10 21 22 23 24 26 27	h m 5 0 5 2 5 6 5 0 5 4 5 1 4 58 5 0 5 4 4 58 Means	23 15 22 10 21 26 22 15 19 07 19 15 19 24 18 50 17 22 18 23 201 27	·035 ·027 ·026 ·045 ·013 ·023 ·024 ·022 ·017 ·015 ·247	-069 -072 -060 -069 -051 -060 -068 -060 -058 -059	·104 ·099 ·086 ·114 ·064 ·083 ·092 ·075 ·074 ·873

(3.)

	A.M.									P.M.			
Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitude.	Sun.	Sky.	Total.	Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitude.	Sun.	Sky.	Total.
13. 31. 50. 58. 77. 88. 98. 109. 120. 130.	6 9 12 21 23 24 26 27 28 29 30	h m 8 0 7 59 8 0 8 2 8 0 7 59 8 0 7 59 8 0 7 59 8 0	32 25 31 58 31 49 30 43 30 23 29 58 29 58 29 57 29 41 29 38 29 38	·081 ·053 ·079 ·050 ·044 ·051 ·045 ·047 ·032 ·036	·111 ·101 ·103 ·097 ·097 ·087 ·098 ·096 ·093 ·080 ·084	192 154 182 147 151 138 149 141 140 112	10. 17. 26. 38. 45. 65. 74. 84. 95. 105.	5 6 8 9 10 21 22 23 24 26 27	h m 4 0 4 1 4 12 4 0 4 10 3 58 3 59 4 0 4 2 4 5	35 21 34 49 34 11 31 50 34 04 29 29 31 21 30 53 30 36 29 38 28 40	-069 -049 -060 -049 -081 -041 -036 -043 -051 -053 -053	·138 ·116 ·112 ·096 ·109 ·087 ·118 ·077 ·100 ·092 ·097	-207 -165 -172 -145 -190 -128 -154 -120 -151
	l		336 08	•569	1.047	1.606	l			350 52	•585	1.143	1.727
		Means	30 33	.052	097	146	i		Means	31 54	.053	104	•157

(4.)

	A.M.						P.M.						
Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitude.	Sun.	Sky.	Total.	Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitude.	Sun.	Sky.	Total.
14. 51. 59. 68. 78. 89. 110. 121. 131.	6 12 21 22 23 24 26 27 28 29 30	h m 9 0 9 2 8 59 9 0 8 59 8 58 9 1 9 7 9 5 9 0 9 5	44 13 43 33 41 16 41 38 41 20 58 41 21 41 09 41 35 458 51 41 43	-102 -154 -144 -089 -091 -079 -083 -108 -098 -098 -082 -1120	-124 -129 -129 -124 -109 -104 -112 -098 -096 	-226 -283 -273 -213 -200 -183 -197 -228 -202 -196 -178 -2:379	9. 25. 44. 56. 64. 73. 83. 104. 115. 127. 137.	5 8 10 12 21 22 23 26 27 28 30	h m 3 2 3 1 3 3 2 59 3 1 3 0 2 58 3 2 3 0 3 6	46 25 45 46 44 59 45 02 42 35 42 34 42 20 40 45 40 23 38 25 469 56	-105 -142 -139 -069 -086 -114 -103 -094 -091 -075 -070 1-088	-158 -136 -128 -083 -114 -116 -104 -116 -112 -110 -089 -1266	*263 *278 *267 *152 *200 *230 *207 *210 *203 *185 *159 *2*354

TABLE I. (5.)

			A.M.							P.M.			
Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitude.	Sun.	Sky.	Total.	Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitude.	Sun.	Sky.	Total.
4. 15. 21. 33. 41. 52. 60. 69. 79. 100. 111. 122.	5 6 8 9 10 12 21 22 23 24 26 27 28	h m 10 0 10 0 10 2 9 57 10 5 10 0 10 1 9 58 9 58 10 5 10 3 10 3	54 56 54 58 54 59 53 55 54 51 53 42 51 20 51 27 51 26 51 21 689 16		-180 -128 -130 -121 -168 -104 -158 -116 -112 -112 -120 -118 -120	-289 -310 -287 -243 -383 -256 -300 -273 -267 -219 -281 -273 -253 -267	8. 37. 55. 94. 126. 136.	5 9 12 24 28 30	h m 2 5 2 0 1 57 2 2 2 2 Means	56 26 56 01 55 36 52 25 50 12 49 09 319 49 53 18	-143 -095 -091 -149 -091 -080 -649	-150 -118 -106 -114 -112 -118 -718	-293 -213 -197 -263 -203 -198 1-367

(6.)

							••,						
			A.M.							P.M.			
Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitude.	Sun.	8ky.	Total.	Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitude.	Sun.	Sky.	Total.
5. 16. 22. 34. 42. 53. 61. 70. 80. 91. 101. 112.	5 6 8 9 10 12 21 22 23 24 26 27 28	h m 11 00 11 07 11 00 10 58 11 00 11 01 11 05 11 05 11 05 11 05 11 05 11 05	64 01 64 29 63 25 62 56 62 55 62 24 60 04 60 15 59 45 59 15 58 35 58 18 58 32 794 54 61 09	2.653	·	-355 -343 -273 -280 -393 -326 -341 -388 -378 -314 -362 -296 -305 -305	7. 24. 36. 54. 63. 72. 82. 93. 114. 125. 135.	5 8 9 12 22 23 24 27 28 30	h m 1 0 1 1 12 59 1 0 12 58 12 59 12 59 1 0 12 59 1 11 1 0 Means	65 22 64 35 64 35 63 28 60 51 60 27 60 08 59 39 57 06 57 36 672 13		·180 ·148 ·124 ·114 ·126 ·144 ·106 ·121 ·166 ·114 ·124 1·467	·310 ·315 ·234 ·276 ·384 ·432 ·284 ·344 ·416 ·272 ·223 3·490
	i	Means	61 09	204	131	.333	i	!	' !				

NOON. (7.)

Expt.	Date.	Hour.	Altitud	e. Sun.	Sky.	Total.
6. 23. 35. 43. 62. 71. 81. 92. 102. 113. 124.	5 8 9 10 21 22 23 24 26 27 28	h m 12 0 12 0 12 0 12 0 12 0 12 0 12 0 11 59 11 59 11 58 12 2 12 2 12 7	66 5 63 3 63 1 62 5 62 3 61 5 61 2	1	-188 -177 -126 -172 -132 -120 -114 -118 -128 -122 -116 1-513	374 390 344 420 410 345 368 317 338 335 307

The results are more clearly seen in the following Table.

TABLE II.

Time.	Mean	Mean	chemical in	ensity.	Number of	Diff.	
Time.	altitude.	Sun	Diffused.	Total.	observations.	Din.	
h m	20 22		200				
6 0 A.M.	10 23	0.000	0-041	0.041	3	+ -003	
6 0 P.M.	9 28	0.000	0-035	0.035	12		
7 0 A.M.	19 14	0.020	0-061	0.082	8	-0-025	
5 0 P.M.	20 09	0.025	0.062	0.087	10		
8 0 A.M.	30 33	0.052	0-097	0.146	11	-0.005	
4 0 P.M.	31 54	0.053	0.104	0.157	11		
9 0 A.M.	41 43	0.102	0.114	0.216	11	+0-001	
3 0 р.м.	42 43	0.099	0.115	0.214	11		
10 0 A.M.	53 01	0.149	0.130	0.279	13	+ 0-025	
2 0 P.M.	53 18	0.108	0-120	0.228	6		
11 0 A.M.	61 09	0.204	0.131	0.335	13	+ 0-009	
1 0 PM.	61 07	0.184	0.133	0.317	11		
12 0 Noon.	64 14	0.221	0-138	0.359	. 11		

The numbers contained in columns 3 and 4 of Table II. give the relation between direct sunlight and diffuse daylight. These sets of numbers, expressed graphically in terms of the altitude, are seen on Plate XXX. fig. 3; the dotted curve indicating the intensity of the diffused light, the black curve that of the direct sunlight. These two curves intersect at an altitude of 50°, at which elevation, therefore, the place of equal chemical illumination occurs for a surface placed in the plane of the horizon.

The fact that the curve of direct sunlight cuts the base line at 10° bears out the conclusion which one of us has already announced, namely, that at altitudes below 10° direct sunlight is robbed of almost all its chemically active rays.

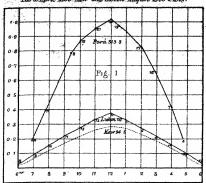
The curves (fig. 1) show the daily march of chemical intensity at Lisbon, as a mean of all the observations, compared with that at Kew for the preceding August, and at Pará for the preceding April. The number representing the mean chemical intensity at Kew is 94.5, at Lisbon 110, and at Pará 313.3; light of the intensity 1.0 acting for twenty-four hours being taken as 1000.

If we now arrange the observations according to the sun's altitude, we have:-

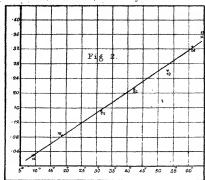
TABLE III.

Number of	Mean	Chemical intensity						
observations	altatude	Sun	Sky.	Total.				
15.	9 5í	0-000	0-038	0-038				
18.	19 41	0.023	0.062	0.085				
22.	31 14	0.052	0-100	0.152				
22.	42 13	0-100	0-115	0.215				
19.	53 09	0.136	0.126	0.262				
24.	61 08	0.195	0.132	0.327				
11.	64 14	0.221	0.138	0.359				

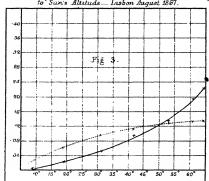
Carries showing March of Blat Chimical Intensity for Sunshins. Bard April 1866 Kew and Lisbon August 1866 s 1867.



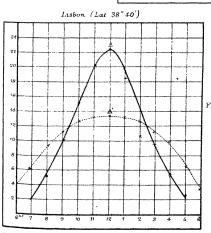
Gurve shewing Relation of Total Chemical Intensity to Sun's Attitude . Lisbon August 1867.



Curves shewing Relation of direct & diffused Chemical Intensity to Sun's Altitude Insbon August 1867.



direct diffused



Naples (Lat 40° 52')

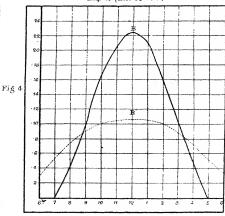


Fig. gives the graphical representation of the relation of the total chemical intensity as ordinate to the sun's altitude as abscissa. The relation between the altitude and chemical intensity for altitude above 10° is here seen to be accurately represented by a straight line. The position of the experimentally determined points are noted, and serve to show how closely they lie to the straight line.

In former communications it has been shown that a similar relation between altitude and chemical intensity of total daylight has been found to hold good at Heidelberg, Kew, and Pará; and that although the chemical intensity for the same altitude at different places and at different times of the year may greatly vary according to the varying transparency of the atmosphere, yet that the relation at the same place between altitude and intensity is always represented by a straight line. Thus the mean intensities at Lisbon and Pará for 30° are 0.15 and 0.44 respectively, whilst for 60° they are 0.32 and 0.80. That this variation in the direction of the straight line expressed by the constant in the formula, given in the paper last referred to, is due to the opalescence of the atmosphere, we have evidence of in the fact that, for equal altitudes, the higher intensity is always found where the mean temperature of the air is greater, as in summer, when we compare the same place at different seasons, or as we approach the equator, when we compare different places. The first of these conditions of variation is clearly seen if we compare the Kew observations for the same altitudes, but for different times of the year. The following Table clearly shows that the altitude in the warmer half of the year is invariably accompanied by a higher chemical action than that in the colder, and this is attributable to the varying opalescence, which is certainly a function of the atmospheric temperature, and is less marked as we approach the summer solstice or pass towards the equator.

Comparison of Chemical Intensities at Kew, 1866.

Month.	Time of observation.	Corresponding altitude.	Chemical intensity of total day light.	
I. {October	h m 2 30 p.m. 4 42 "	23 10 23 58	0·059 0·115	
II. { November	2 27	14 52	0·035	
September	4 43	14 14	0·058	
III. { March	2 30	28 36	0-075	
	4 43	29 52	0-106	
IV. { April July	2 30	38 06	0·116	
	4 39	30 05	0·141	

It is interesting to observe the close agreement which exists between the measurements made at Lisbon with sensitive paper, and the luminous intensities calculated from observations made at Heidelberg by a totally different method. In 1859 Professor Bunsen, and one of us in Part IV. of 'Photochemical Researches,' gave curves of the

^{*} Roscoe, Philosophical Transactions, 1867, p. 555.

chemical action effected, (1) by sunlight, (2) by diffused daylight on the horizontal unit of surface situated at various localities on the earth's surface.

A comparison of the unit of measure there taken can unfortunately not be made with that used in the Lisbon experiments; but if we reduce the observational results for Lisbon (lat. 38° 40′ N.) and the calculated one for Naples (lat. 40° 52′ N.) to a common measure by assuming that the action of the direct sunlight at noon is equal in both cases, and reduce the other points in the Naples curve in the same ratio, we obtain the two curves B, B', fig. 4, whilst the corresponding curves for Lisbon are given on fig. 4, A, A'.

The correspondence between the results of the measurements above described and those made by a totally different method is further shown by the close coincidence of the "phases of equal chemical illumination" for sun- and diffuse-light as determined by both methods. In a former communication * it has been shown that in all places where the sun rises to a height of more than 20° 56' above the horizon the chemical action effected by the diffuse daylight exceeds that of the direct sunlight at first; and that as the sun gradually rises a point is reached at which both sunlight and diffuse daylight produce exactly the same amount of chemical action, whilst beyond this point the effect of the sunshine is more powerful. This phase of equal illumination was calculated from theoretical considerations, and the result was confirmed by experiment, the difference between the calculated and the experimental points of equality amounting in mean to about thirty-five minutes. By reducing the chemical intensity of the direct sunlight in Table III. to that which the sunlight would produce on a plane perpendicular to the incident rays, we find that the phase of equal chemical intensity in reality is one which lasts for some time, that it begins near the calculated altitude of 18° 48', but that it continues for about an hour. When, however, the sun reaches an elevation of 35°, the intensity of the sun's perpendicular rays becomes greater than that of the total diffuse light acting on a horizontal surface.

^{*} Bunsen and Roscoe, "Photochemical Researches.—Part IV.," Phil. Trans. 1859, p. 915.

XVIII. Researches on Vanadium.—Part III. By Henry E. Roscoe, B.A., Ph.D., F.R.S.

Received and Read April 7, 1870.

I. METALLIC VANADIUM.

In the second Part of my "Researches on Vanadium," communicated to the Royal Society (Phil. Trans. 1869, p. 691), I stated that metallic vanadium absorbs hydrogen. This conclusion has been fully borne out by subsequent experiment; and it appears that the amount of absorbed or combined hydrogen taken up by the metal varies according to the state of division, first, of the chloride (VCl₂) from which the metal is prepared, and secondly, and especially, of the metallic powder itself. The metal containing absorbed hydrogen on exposure to dry air slowly takes up oxygen, water being formed and the metal undergoing oxidation to a substance which resembles the metal in its appearance, but possesses a darker grey colour, and has a less brilliant metallic lustre than vanadium itself. At this point the oxidation stops, although in moist air it proceeds still further. Thus a portion of pure dichloride was reduced in hydrogen; of the reduced substance, free from chlorine, 0.2666 grm. yielded on complete oxidation 0.4441 of V₂O₅, corresponding to a percentage of 93.6 of pure metal. On exposure to the air for some days this substance absorbed oxygen, losing its brilliant metallic lustre; and when burnt in a current of dry oxygen, water was given off, thus:—

- (1) 0.4232 grm. gave 0.0502 grm. of water and 0.6615 grm. $V_2\,O_5$,
- (2) 0.2695 ,, ,, 0.0315 ,, ,, 0.414 ,, ,,

or

MDCCCLXX.

- (1) gives 87.8 p c. vanadium; 1.3 p. c. hydrogen; 10.9 p. c. oxygen.
- (2) ,, 86.7 p. c. vanadium; 1.3 p. c. hydrogen; 12.0 p. c. oxygen.

The difficulty of obtaining metallic vanadium perfectly free from admixture of oxide was again rendered evident. Pure tetrachloride was prepared in quantity, and from this the dichloride was made. On heating this dichloride to whiteness for forty-eight hours a substance was obtained which gained on oxidation 70.7 per cent., and therefore still contained a slight admixture of oxide. The reducing action of sodium on the solid chlorides was next examined; in this case the reduction takes place rapidly but quietly in an atmosphere of hydrogen at a red heat, and may be best conducted in strong iron tubes proved air-tight under hydraulic pressure of 200 lbs. on the square inch. Explosions occur when the tetrachloride is heated with sodium. The substance thus obtained by the action of sodium was found on lixiviation to be free from chlorine, and on washing it was found to separate into two parts—(1) a light and finely divided black powder

2 v

(trioxide), soluble in hydrochloric acid, which remains in suspension, and (2) a heavier grey powder (insoluble in hydrochloric acid), which is deposited, and which by repeated washing may be entirely freed from the lighter trioxide. This bright grey powder consists of metallic vanadium mixed with more or less oxide. If the finely divided metallic powder, after drying in vacuo, be reduced at a low red heat in a current of pure hydrogen, it takes fire spontaneously, when cold, on exposure to air or oxygen, a distinct flame being seen playing on the surface whilst water is formed. In one experiment a product thus prepared contained 91·1 per cent. of metallic vanadium (0·354 substance gave 0·574 grm. V₂O₅). This substance, exposed for some weeks to dry air, slowly absorbed oxygen, and on roasting gave a percentage increase of 53·75 (0·453 grm. yielded 0·6965 V₂O₅), whilst 0·034 grm. or 7·5 per cent. of water was at the same time formed. This shows that the point of oxidation at which the metal containing hydrogen becomes stable in dry air nearly corresponds to the oxide V₂O.

A similar slow change in the appearance of the metal has been noticed in some of the portions of the metallic powder placed on microscopic slides.

II. VANADIUM AND BROMINE.

1. Vanadium Oxytribromide or Vanadyl Tribromide, VO Br., molec. wt. = 307·3.— When the vapour of perfectly dry and pure bromine is passed over vanadium trioxide (V2O3) heated to redness, dense yellowish-white fumes of the oxytribromide are formed in the heated portion of the tube, and these condense together with the excess of bromine to form a dark red transparent liquid. In order to free the oxytribromide from excess of bromine, the mixed liquids must be rectified in vacuo, as the temperature of decomposition of the oxybromide lies (under the ordinary atmospheric pressure) below its boiling-point. By distilling under a pressure of 106 millims. of mercury in a current of perfectly dry air the whole of the bromine was got rid of before the thermometer rose to 45° C. The transparent liquid remaining in the retort had a dark red colour, gave off white fumes on exposure to moist air, and when thrown into water produced a light yellow-coloured solution of a vanadic salt. It is possible to distil the oxybromide under diminished pressure with but slight decomposition occurring, although when heated under the atmospheric pressure it suddenly solidifies at 180° C., splitting up into the oxydibromide and bromine. Under a pressure of 100 millims, of mercury the oxytribromide volatilizes without decomposition between 130° to 136° C.

The following analytical results were obtained:—Analysis No. 1 was made from a portion of oxytribromide which had not been distilled, No. 2 from a portion of the same substance, after further treatment with dry air at 63°, No. 3 from another preparation which had been distilled *in vacuo*, and in which the bromine determination is too high owing to traces of free bromine.

rick a factor		way	Silver bromide	Vanadium pentoxide		Percentages	
1	teken. 0.7173	i.	Zonnat.	found. 0 2110		of browise.	of vanadium. 16.52
1.1	0.8022		1.5013	- 		79-62	satisfier to the satisfier
01	0.9150		propriestation of the second	0.2748			16.87
2.1	0.5580		1.038			79.10	
3.{	0.4850		- Charles - Charles	0.1435		***************************************	16.62
3.	0.3745		0.7085			80.48	

Hence we have as the composition of the oxytribromide:

Col	ralated.				
	A	I.	II.	III.	Mean.
V = 51.3	16.69	16.52	16.87	16.62	16.67
$Br_3 = 240.0$	78.10	79.62	79.10	80-48	79.36
O = 16.0	5.21	***************************************	*********		
307.3	100.00				

The colour of the oxytribromide is somewhat redder than that of bromine, and it is more transparent in thin films, and much more translucent than bromine.

The oxytribromide slowly decomposes at the ordinary atmospheric temperature into bromine and oxydibromide; it is very deliquescent and hydroscopic, and cannot be formed in presence of moisture. The specific gravity of the oxytribromide at 0° is 2.9673, and at $14^{\circ}.5$ it is 2.9325.

2. Vanadium Oxydibromide or Vanadyl Bromide, VO Br₂, molec. wt. =227·3.—This substance forms suddenly when the oxytribromide is heated to temperatures above 180°, and it is slowly produced by the same decomposition at lower temperatures. The oxydibromide is a yellowish-brown solid body, in appearance resembling other; it is very deliquescent, and on heating in the air it loses all its bromine and is converted into the pentoxide. Thrown into water it dissolves, furnishing a blue solution of hypo-vanadic (V_2 O_4) salt.

The following analyses were made from oxydibromide prepared on different occasions.

	Oxydibromide	Vanadium pentoxide	Silver bromide	Percen	tages
(1)	taken. 0.7260	found. 0.3025	found. 1.2245	of vanadium.	of bromine.
(2)	0.5910	***********	0:9738		70.11
	1.1259	0.4308		21.50	

Hence we have

-	,,		Calcu	lated.	Fou		
v			51:3	22.57	(1). 23·40	(2). 21·50	Mean. 22.45
Br_2			160.0	70.39	71.75	70.11	70.93
0		•	16.0	7.04			
			227.3	100.00			

3. Vanadium Tribromide, VBr3, molec. wt. =2913.—This body condenses as a greyish-black opake amorphous sublimate, when dry bromine vapour is passed in excess over vanadium nitride heated to redness. Brown vapours are given off, which soon condense in the cooler portions of the tube. The tribromide is a very unstable compound, losing bromine even at the ordinary temperature in dry air, and being converted into V₂ O₃ when gently heated. It deliquesces rapidly on exposure to moist air, giving rise to a brown-coloured liquid, in this respect resembling the trichloride, but on addition of a few drops of hydrochloric acid the brown liquid changes to the green colour characteristic of a solution of a vanadous salt (V₂O₃). No free bromine is evolved when the tribromide dissolves in water. In order to prepare the tribromide, pure nitride of vanadium, contained in a porcelain boat, was introduced into a combustion-tube, and after all the air had been displaced by dry carbonic acid, the part of the tube containing the nitride was heated to redness, the other part of the tube being kept at such a temperature as to volatilize any excess of bromine which might pass over. After all the nitride had burnt away, the bulb containing the bromine was sealed off, and a current of dry carbonic acid passed over the solid bromide to displace all traces of free bromine. A second method of preparing the tribromide is to pass bromine vapour over a mixture of vanadium trioxide and charcoal; in this reaction the oxytribromide is first formed, then the oxydibromide, and lastly, the tribromide, VBr3; but this plan is not to be recommended, as the tube soon becomes stopped up by the formation of these solid com-The bromide thus prepared was not analyzed, but it presented exactly the same appearance and properties as the tribromide obtained by the first method.

No higher compound of bromine and vanadium than the tribromide could be obtained. The volatile liquid passing into the bulb in the first preparation was carefully rectified, and it was all found to distil over at the boiling-point of bromine, leaving only a small quantity of the tribromide in the bulb. Some difficulty was experienced in obtaining satisfactory analytical results with the tribromide, owing to the fact, already observed by STAS*, that bromide of silver, when boiled with excess of nitrate of silver, carries down with it some of this latter salt inclosed in the bromide, and that this impurity cannot be got rid of by washing. Owing to this admixture of nitrate of silver the bromine determinations usually come out about two per cent. too high, whilst the vanadium determinations gave constant numbers, agreeing much more nearly with the calculated results. in four analyses of the tribromide prepared on different occasions the mean percentage of bromine was found to be 84.15, the calculated percentage being 82.4; whilst the vanadium determinations of the same portions gave 18.57 per cent. instead of 17.6 per cent. In order to lessen as much as possible this error, the precipitated bromide of silver was reduced in hydrogen until no further diminution of weight occurred, and the percentage of bromine calculated from this loss.

^{*} Stas, Recherches sur les Lois des Proportions chimiques, p. 156.

e - 13	Weight of tribro- mide taken.	Vanadium pentoxide	Loss of bromine.	Percentages		
1.5	James March,	found.	oromine.	of vanadium.	of bromine.	
(1)	0.8004	0.2630	0.6500	18.46	81.21	
(2)	0.3462	0.1160	0.2790	18.80	80.58	
(3)	0.5960	0.1965	0.4815	18.52	80.85	

Hence we have:-

ž.,.		Caler	lated.		Found.		,
		تتسم		(1).	(2).	(3).	Mean.
$\mathbf{v} =$		51.3	17.6	18.46	18.80	18.52	18.59
$Br_3 =$		240.0	82.4	81.21	80.58	80.78	80.86
		291.3	100.0	99.67	99.38	99.30	99.45

Experiments made with the bromine employed, which had been rectified over potassium bromide, and was carefully tested for chlorine and iodine and showed to be pure, proved that a similar excess of weight occurred on precipitation with nitrate of silver. In one experiment the percentage of bromine thus found was 100.96, and in a second experiment 101.41. It will also be seen that the bromine determinations of the oxybromides are similarly all too high from the same cause.

III. VANADIUM AND IODINE.

When the vapour of iodine is passed over the red-hot nitride of vanadium contained in a tube no action whatever takes place, the nitride after the operation remaining perfectly unchanged. Vanadium trioxide is likewise unacted upon by iodine at all temperatures.

IV. METALLIC VANADATES.

In the first Part of these researches* I pointed out (1) that the vanadates analyzed by Berzelius, prepared by boiling vanadic acid with the alkaline hydroxides and by double decomposition, must be considered as meta- or monobasic vanadates, (2) that the so-called bi-vanadates analyzed by Von Hauer, and prepared by acting on the metavanadates with acids are anhydro-salts, and (3) that the naturally occurring vanadates are tribasic salts, and that sodium ortho-vanadate is formed when one molecule of vanadium pentoxide is fused with three molecules of carbonate of soda, three molecules of carbon dioxide being expelled. I have now to describe the preparation and properties of some characteristic members of these three classes of vanadates, as well as those of a fourth new class, viz. the tetrabasic or pyro-vanadates.

Determination of vanadium in the soluble vanadates.—The separation of vanadic acid from the metals of the alkalies by means of chloride of ammonium, as proposed by Von HAUER, is apt to give too low results, both as regards the vanadium and the alkali. It

[·] Philosophical Transactions, 1868 (Bakerian Lecture).

⁺ Journ. Prac. Chem. Bd. lxix. p. 388, 1856.

is almost impossible to prevent traces of ammonium metavanadate from dissolving, and on ignition, even with the greatest care, some portions of the finely divided vanadium pentoxide are invariably carried off when the ammonia escapes. On the other hand, the volatilization of the comparatively large quantities of sal-ammoniac which must be employed in order to ensure the complete precipitation of the vanadium, almost always entails a considerable loss of the fixed alkaline chlorides. A far more accurate plan for the separation of vanadium is the precipitation of the soluble vanadate by acetate of lead, when basic lead vanadate is precipitated, which is so insoluble that a portion when finely powdered and boiled in water did not dissolve in sufficient quantity to enable the lead reaction with sulphuretted hydrogen to be detected in the filtrate. This salt is also insoluble in acetic, but it dissolves readily in nitric acid, liberating vanadic acid, which separates out, but dissolves completely when the liquid is warmed. In the analysis of a soluble vanadate this insoluble lead salt is collected on a filter, dried at 100° C, and weighed; a given quantity of the dried salt is then dissolved in nitric acid, the lead precipitated by pure sulphuric acid, and the lead sulphate determined with the usual precautions of evaporation with addition of alcohol, &c. The lead sulphate thus obtained is (contrary to Berzelius's statement) quite free from vanadium, whilst the vanadic acid in the filtrate is obtained perfectly pure, and well crystallized on evaporation and ignition. The filtrate from the lead vanadate, freed from excess of lead by means of sulphuric acid and evaporated, yields the alkaline sulphate not containing a trace of vanadium.

Sodium Vanadates.

1. Sodium Orthovanadate, $Na_3 VO_4 + 16 H_2 O$.—When a mixture of three molecules of sodium carbonate and one molecule of vanadium pentoxide is fused until no further evolution of carbon dioxide is observed, three molecules of CO_2 have been expelled and a tribasic variadate remains as a white crystalline mass.

In one experiment in which a slight excess of sodium carbonate was taken 0.5785 grm. V₂O₅ liberated on fusion 0.4185 grm. CO₂. According to the equation

$$V_2 O_5 + 3Na_2 CO_3 = 2Na_3 VO_4 + 3CO_2$$

the weight of CO2 liberated by this quantity of vanadium pentoxide is 0.4182 grm.

The mixture is easily fusible at first, but becomes less so as the reaction proceeds; whilst to begin with the heat of a Bunsen's burner is sufficient to melt the mass, it is necessary to apply the heat of a blowpipe-flame to keep up the fusion when the decomposition becomes more nearly complete. On cooling, the solidified mass acquires first a dark green colour, and then passes through yellow, until when cold it becomes perfectly white, and is found to possess a crystalline appearance. It dissolves easily in cold water, but is insoluble in alcohol. Hot water must not be employed for dissolving the fused mass, and as little cold water as possible. The cold strong aqueous solution must be instantly mixed with excess of strong alcohol; two layers of liquid are then formed, the upper one consisting of dilute alcohol, the lower one of the saline solution. After

standing for a few hours the lower layer of liquid solidifies, forming an aggregate of colourless needle-shaped crystals. These crystals, which possess a strong alkaline reaction, are washed with small quantities of alcohol, then placed on a porous plate over sulphuric acid in vacuo, and after remaining for a short time they may be taken out for analysis. The following analytical results were obtained:—

Water determination.—0.8077 grm. of the crystals which first fuse in their water of crystallization lost on careful ignition in platinum 0.4882 grm. H₂O; corresponding to '60.44 per cent.

Vanadium determination.—The residual anhydrous salt left in the crucible after the previous experiment, gave, on precipitation with lead acetate, a precipitate (dried at 100° C.) weighing 0.7472 grm.; 0.7245 grm. of this precipitate was dissolved in nitric acid, and the lead precipitated with slight excess of sulphuric acid, the usual precautions being taken. The filtrate from the lead sulphate yielded on evaporation 0.1515 grm. of finely crystallized $V_2 O_5$. Consequently the whole lead precipitate contained 0.1565 grm. $V_2 O_5$, corresponding to 19.34 per cent., or to 10.86 per cent. of vanadium, on the sodium salt taken.

Sodium determination.—The liquid filtered off from the lead precipitate, and freed from excess of lead, left on evaporation and ignition 0.3440 grm. of Na₂ SO₄, corresponding to 0.1502 Na, O, or 13.8 per cent. of sodium in the salt.

 $Na_3 VO_4 + 16 H_2 O.$

These numbers correspond to the formula

60.44 60.97100.00

Sodium orthovanadate is an extremely unstable compound. Its aqueous solution slowly undergoes decomposition on standing at the ordinary temperature of the air out of contact with atmospheric carbonic acid, whilst at higher temperatures the same change takes place quickly. This decomposition consists in the formation of a new salt, sodium tetravanadate, the liquid becomes strongly alkaline, whilst caustic soda is liberated, according to the equation

$$2(Na_3 VO_4) + H_2 O = Na_4 V_2 O_7 + 2Na HO.$$

This remarkable reaction was carefully investigated, as is seen in the sequel.

I have not been successful in several attempts to prepare a tribasic sodium vanadate containing basic hydrogen. All the reactions which with the corresponding phosphate yield hydrogen-sodium salts give with the vanadate the tetrabasic compound above mentioned. The orthovanadates of most of the metals are insoluble compounds obtained by precipitating neutral solutions of the soluble metallic salts with a solution of orthovanadate of sodium. The reactions of the more important metals are as follows:—

Reactions of the Orthovanadates.

 Ferric salt . . . Gelatinous precipitate of a light brownish-yellow colour, soluble in hydrochloric, insoluble in acetic acid.

2. Ferrous salt . . Dark grey precipitate.

3. Manganous salt . Brownish-yellow crystalline precipitate.

4. Zinc salt . . . White gelatinous precipitate.

5. Cobalt salt . . . Brown-grey gelatinous precipitate.

6. Nickel salt . . . Canary-yellow crystalline precipitate.

7. Aluminium salt . Bright yellow gelatinous precipitate, soluble in excess of both reagents; on boiling a white precipitate is again thrown down.

8. Copper salt . . . Apple-green coloured precipitate.

9. Mercuric salt . . Orange-yellow precipitate.

The reaction which serves best to distinguish the ortho- from the metavanadates is that of the corresponding copper salts. Orthovanadate of copper possesses a bright apple-green colour, whilst the metavanadate falls down a light yellow crystalline powder.

2. Tetrasodium Vanadate, or Pyrovanadate, Na₄V₂O₇+18H₂O.—This salt crystallizes in beautiful six-sided tables. It is easily soluble in water, insoluble in alcohol, and is precipitated from aqueous solutions by the latter liquid in the form of white scales of a pearly lustre. The pyrovanadate can be readily obtained by fusing one molecule of vanadium pentoxide (V₂O₅) with two molecules of sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃), dissolving and crystallizing. It can also be obtained by the decomposition of the orthovanadate in aqueous solutions. As long as the tetrabasic salt contains free alkali, from the decomposition of the orthovanadate, the precipitate with alcohol forms oily drops, which only solidify after some time, whilst the pure salt is at once thrown down in the form of silky scales. If the fusion of vanadium pentoxide with three molecules of carbonate of soda be not completed at a very high temperature, the carbonate is not fully decomposed, and the fused mass when dissolved in water crystallizes at once in six-sided tables, or, if the solution be very concentrated, in nodular groups of needle-shaped crystals. The tetrabasic salt is more easily fusible than the tribasic salt, and on cooling from fusion it also forms a crystalline mass.

Decomposition of Tribasic into Tetrabasic Vanadates by boiling the aqueous solution.—
That a decomposition of the above nature takes place is seen by the analyses of the different samples of 4 basic sodium salt which follow, not one of which was prepared by fusing two molecules of the carbonate with only one of vanadic acid, but by repeatedly recrystallizing the tribasic salt. The decomposition is not brought about by atmospheric carbonic acid; for in the following experiments the solution of the salts and the filtration of their solutions were effected in an apparatus from which all access of carbonic acid

was so completely excluded that the alkaline mother liquor from the tetrabasic salt did not effervesce on the addition of excess of acid.

This apparatus consisted of two flasks connected with each other in such a way that the liquid contained in one of them could be passed into the other by compressing an india-rubber ball, and before the liquid entered the second flask it passed through a wide piece of glass-tubing in which a small filter was placed. The apertures were then closed by tubes containing solid caustic soda, and the salt could thus be dissolved in alcohol or water without any fear of entrance of carbonic acid.

2.0393 grms. pure V_2O_5 and 3.7 grms. pure carbonate of soda were mixed and fused until no further effervescence occurred. The loss of weight amounted to 1.441 grm., whilst the theoretical loss for three molecules of CO₂ is 1.474 grm. The fused mass was dissolved in water and boiled for some time in an atmosphere free from carbonic acid, and finally precipitated with an excess of strong alcohol. After filtration the clear solution containing the caustic soda formed by the decomposition was neutralized by standard hydrochloric acid; it required 4 cub. centims. for saturation (1 cub. centim. =0.0366 grm. H Cl), corresponding to 0.124 grm. Na₂O. The precipitate was again dissolved in a small quantity of water and reprecipitated by alcohol; this second solution needed 4.6 cub. centims, of acid for saturation, corresponding to 0.1429 grm. Na₂O. A third repetition of the process showed that 2 cub. centims. of acid was needed, or 0.062grm. Na, O. Thus altogether 0.3289 grm. of Na, O was obtained, or nearly half the amount required by the formula 2Na₃ VO₄=Na₄ V₂ O₇+Na₂ O, namely 0.692 grm. The alcoholic solutions were free from carbonic acid, and they yielded, on addition of silver nitrate, a brown precipitate of silver oxide. They were likewise proved, by evaporation and treatment with oxalic acid, to be free from any trace of vanadic acid.

From the above experiment it is seen that the decomposition of the tetrasodium salt goes on by degrees, a fresh portion of free soda being found in solution each time the salt is dissolved and precipitated; it is even possible that the precipitation with alcohol causes a partial recombination of the caustic soda with the tribasic salt.

Analyses of Tetrasodium Vanadate. Vanadium determinations:-

- (1) 1.0325 grm. of crystallized pyro-salt was dissolved in a small quantity of water and mixed with pure chloride of ammonium. After standing for twelve hours the insoluble metavanadate of ammonium* filtered off, washed first with a mixture of a saturated aqueous solution of sal-ammoniac and alcohol, and lastly with pure alcohol. On ignition 0.2995 grm. $V_2\,O_5$ was left, corresponding to 29.00 per cent. of $V_2\,O_5$, or 16.29 per cent. of vanadium.
- (2) 1.3155 grm. of crystallized salt from another preparation, precipitated as above with sal-ammoniac, gave 0.3680 V_2O_5 , corresponding to 27.97 per cent. of V_2O_5 , or to 15.71 per cent. of vanadium.

 $Na_4 V_2 O_7 + 4NH_4 Cl = 4Na Cl + 2(NH_4 VO_3) + 2NH_3 + H_2 O_3$

^{*} This reaction shows that the pyrovanadate of ammonium is not formed by double decomposition, but that the meta-salt is precipitated whilst the solution becomes alkaline. Thus:—

- (3) 0.5227 grm. of substance was dissolved in water and reduced by means of zinc and sulphuric acid until the liquid acquired the permanent lavender tint of hypovanadous salt. A standard permanganate solution (1 cub. centim.=0.00066 grm. oxygen) was then added until the oxidation was complete; cub. centims. needed, 57.8=0.03815 grm. oxygen, corresponding to 0.1451 V₂O₅, or 15.60 per cent. of vanadium.
- (4) 0.5858 grm. substance was precipitated with lead acetate, and yielded 0.6845 grm. of $2(Pb_2 V_2 O_7) + Pb O$ (see lead salts) dried at 100° . Hence the pyro-salt contained 0.09487 grm. of vanadium, or 16.19 per cent.
- (5) 0.5285 grm. of a third preparation yielded on precipitation with sal-ammoniac 0.1506 V₂ O₅, corresponding to 16.06 per cent. of vanadium.

Sodium determinations:-

- (1) 0.5858 grm. substance (Analysis No. 4) yielded in the filtrate from the lead precipitate 0.2655 grm. Na₂ SO₄, corresponding to 14.67 per cent. of sodium.
- (2) 0.5415 substance of another preparation yielded in a similar way, on evaporation and ignition, 0.2470 grm. Na₂SO₄, corresponding to 14.79 per cent. of sodium in the crystallized salt.
- (3) 0.5285 grm. of the crystals (Analysis No. 5) gave 0.1925 grm. Na Cl, corresponding to 14.57 per cent. of sodium.

Water Determinations.—The crystals lose at 100° C. seventeen molecules of water; at 140° C. eighteen molecules are driven off:—

- (1) 0.572 grm. crystals dried at 140° lost 0.290 grm., or 50.69 per cent. of water.
- (2) 0.5415 grm. lost on ignition 0.2893, or 53.4 per cent. of water.
- (3) 0.5285 grm. lost on ignition 0.2719, or 51.44 per cent. of water.

In vacuo over sulphuric acid or at 100° C.:—

- (1) 0.6535 grm. in vacuo lost 0.3185=48.73 per cent.
- (2) 0.499 grm. of another preparation lost in vacuo 0.234=46.89 per cent.
- (3) 1.0755 grm. dried at 100° lost 0.5205=48.39 per cent.
- (4) 0.572 grm. dried at 100° lost 0.279 = 48.77 per cent.

The numbers obtained from the foregoing analyses agree with those calculated from the formula

Na_4	V_2	0,	+	18	\mathbf{H}_2	Ο.
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Calc	ulated.			Found.			Mean.
Na ₄ 92·0	14.58	14.67	14.79	14.57			14.68
$\mathbf{V_2}$ 102.6	16.27	16.29	15.71	[15.60]	16.19	16.06	16.06
O_7 112.0	17.77		-			-	
$18\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}$ $324\cdot\mathrm{O}$	51.38	50.69	53.40	51.44	************		51.84
630.6	$\overline{100.00}$						

When a solution of tetrasodium vanadate is treated with carbonic acid the salt is

decomposed into sodium carbonate, which crystallizes out, and sodium metavanadate, which, being the more soluble salt, remains in solution; thus:—

$$Na_4 V_2 O_7 + CO_2 = 2Na VO_3 + Na_2 CO_3$$
.

The insoluble pyrovanadates precipitated in solutions of the various metals possess properties generally similar to those of the corresponding tribasic vanadates.

Calcium Vanadates.

If to a freshly prepared solution of trisodium vanadate a solution of chloride of calcium be added, a white precipitate falls down, whilst the liquid possesses a strongly alkaline reaction and absorbs carbonic acid from the air. The precipitate is a mixture of calcium pyrovanadate and calcium hydroxide; the tribasic calcium salt, therefore, cannot thus be obtained, as it at once decomposes as follows:—

$$Ca_3 V_2 O_8 + H_2 O = Ca_2 V_2 O_7 + Ca H_2 O_2$$

Calcium Pyrovanadate, $\text{Ca}_2\text{V}_2\text{O}_7+2\frac{1}{2}\text{H}_2\text{O}$.—This compound is precipitated as a white amorphous powder when a solution of chloride of calcium is added to one of the tetrabasic sodium salt. The salt was dried at 100° C., and of this dry salt 0·132 grm. lost on ignition 0·0270 grm., corresponding to 12·63 per cent. of water. For the calcium determination 0·3366 grm. was dissolved in acetic acid and precipitated by oxalic acid, the liquid being warmed until all the vanadic acid was reduced; the precipitation of the oxalate had to be twice repeated in order to free the precipitate completely from vanadium. 0·1956 grm. Ca_2CO_3 was thus obtained, corresponding to 23·23 per cent. of calcium, and the filtrate yielded on evaporation 0·1802 grm. V_2O_5 , or the salt contained 30·16 per cent. of vanadium.

These numbers correspond to the formula

			$Ca_2 V_2 U_7 T$	$-\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} 1$	
			Cal	culated.	
Ca_2			. 80.0	23.56	Found. 23:23
V_2 .			. 102.6	30.21	30.16
O ₇ .			. 112.0	32.98	
$2\frac{1}{2}{\rm H}_2$	O		. 45.0	13.25	12.63
			339.6	100.00	

Co V O 191H O

Barium Pyrovanadate, Ba $_2$ V $_2$ O $_7$.—The dibasic barium salt is anhydrous, but otherwise it closely resembles the corresponding calcium compound. It is slightly soluble in water. For analysis it was dried at 100° C. 0.438 grm. dissolved in hydrochloric acid and precipitated with sulphuric acid yielded 0.4097 grm. Ba SO $_4$, corresponding to 54.69 per cent. of barium. The filtrate from the barium precipitate left on evaporation 0.1678 grm. V $_2$ O $_5$, corresponding to 21.5 per cent. of vanadium.

		Calcu	lated.	Found.
Bag		. 274.0	56.08	54.69
V.		. 102.6	20.99	21.50
O_7 .		. 112.0	22.93	
		488.6	100.00	

Lead Vanadates.

Three native lead vanadates are known.

- (a) Lead metavanadate, Pb(VO₃)₂, occurs as Dechenite.
- (b) Lead pyrovanadate, Pb₂ V₂ O₇, occurs as Descloizite.
- (c) Lead orthovanadate and lead chloride, 3(Pb₃(VO₄)₂)+Pb Cl₂, occurs as vanadinite.
- 1. Basic Pyrovanadate of Lead, 2(Pb₂ V₂ O₇)+Pb O.—When a solution of the tetrasodium vanadate is mixed with a solution of lead acetate, a pale yellow precipitate is thrown down, and the liquid acquires an acid reaction.

The properties of this salt have already been described.

For analysis the salt was dissolved in nitric acid, and (with the exception of No. 1) the lead precipitated by sulphuric acid. The sulphate of lead was found to be quite free from vanadium, and the vanadic acid contained no lead provided care had been taken to remove all nitric acid by evaporation, and if the liquid was mixed with alcohol before the lead sulphate was filtered.

- (1) From a tetrasodium salt which had been only once recrystallized, substance taken 0.3935 grm.; fused with bisulphate of potash, weight of Pb $SO_4 = 0.4084$ grm., corresponding to 70.92 per cent. of lead.
 - (2) 0.373 grm. of the same salt gave 0.0902 V_2O_5 , or 13.55 per cent. of vanadium.
- (3) 0.365 grm. substance gave 0.3732 grm. Pb SO_4 , or 69.85 per cent. of lead and 0.086 V_2O_5 , or 12.98 per cent. of vanadium.
- (4) 0·5195 substance gave 0·5311 Pb SO₄ or 69·83 per cent. of lead, and 0·125 V_2O_5 , or 13·52 per cent. of vanadium.
- (5) 0.681 substance gave 0.7036 Pb SO₄ or 70.57 per cent. of lead, and 0.158 V_2O_5 , or 13.03 per cent. of vanadium.

These numbers correspond to the formula $2(Pb_2 V_2 O_7) + PbO$.

	Calc	ulated.	Found.				Mean.
Pb_5	1035.0	69.92	70.92	69.85	69.83	70.57	70.29
$\mathbf{V_4}$	$205 \cdot 2$	13.86	13.55	12.98	13.52	13.03	13.27
O_{15}	240.0	16.22		-			
	1480.2	100.00					

2. Lead Orthovanadate, Pb₃ (VO₄)₂.—The tribasic vanadate of lead falls as an insoluble nearly white powder when tribasic sodium salt is precipitated by lead acetate. 0.7245 of the substance, when decomposed by nitric acid and precipitated by sulphuric

acid, yielded 0.1515 of V_2O_5 , or contained 11.75 per cent. of vanadium, the percentage required by the formula being 12.04.

3. Lead Orthovanadate and Lead Chloride, artificial Vanadinite, 3(Pb3 (VO4)2)Pb Cl2,

or lead trivanado-chlorhydine,
$$\begin{array}{c} 3VO''' \\ Pb_5 \\ Cl \end{array}$$

If oxide of lead, vanadic acid, and chloride of lead be fused together for a few hours in the proportions in which they are contained in the above formula, the mass after slowly cooling is found to consist of a greyish-yellow crystalline substance, in the interstices of which groups of needle-shaped crystals occur. The fused mass on boiling in water is soon reduced to a powder entirely consisting of fine crystals. This crystalline powder is boiled with water until no further trace of chlorine can be detected in the washings when it is dried ready for analysis. The crystals obtained were too small for measurement; they were, however, seen to consist of hexagonal prisms; the faces of the hexagonal pyramid could not be identified. The crystals have a yellow colour, and possess the waxy lustre characteristic of the natural mineral.

- (1) 0.738 substance fused with Na₂ CO₃ gave 0.0525 Ag Cl and 0.0122 Ag, or 2.33 per cent. of chlorine.
- (2) 0.4135 substance dissolved in nitric acid and precipitated with silver nitrate, gave 0.0347 Ag Cl and 0.0003 Ag, or 2.17 per cent. of chlorine.
- (3) 0.5582 substance dissolved in nitric acid and precipitated with sulphuric acid, gave 0.5881 Pb SO₄, or 71.96 per cent. of lead, and 0.1104 of V_2 O₅, corresponding to 11.11 per cent. of vanadium.
- (4) 0.5443 substance of another preparation, dissolved in nitric acid and precipitated with silver nitrate, gave 0.045 Ag Cl and 0.0035 Ag, corresponding to 2.17 per cent. chlorine, and 0.5705 Pb SO₄, or 71.57 per cent. of lead.

The following gives the composition of various specimens of natural vanadinites compared with that of the artificial mineral:—

	Natural vanadinites.					
Calculated $3(Pb_3(VO_4)_2)PbCl_2$.		Windischkappel (Rammelsberg).	Wieklow.	Beresesowsk (Struve).	Artificial v	(2)
Lead 73.08	70.40	71.20	68.72	73.76	71.96	71.57
Vanadium . 10.86	-	9.77	13.15	9.54	11.11	
Phosphorus		and the state of t	-	1.34	*******	-
Chlorine . 2.56	2.54	2.23	2.44	2.46	2.33	2.17
Oxygen 13.55		-				

The specific gravity of the artificial vanadinite at 12° C. is 6.707, that of the natural mineral varies from 6.66 to 7.2*.

^{*} Pyromorphite and apatite were prepared artificially for the first time in 1852 by Marross (Ann. Ch. Pharm. lxxxii. p. 348), and afterwards by Deville and Caron, and Debeay. Mimetesite has also been recently artificially prepared by Lechartier (Comptes Rendus, 1867, lxv. p. 172).

Silver Vanadotes.

1. Silver Orthovanadate, or Tribasic Silver Vanadate, Ag₃ VO₄, is precipitated as a deep orange-coloured powder when a freshly prepared solution of tribasic sodium salt is mixed with a perfectly neutral solution of silver nitrate. If the precaution of neutralizing the silver solution with carbonate of soda, filtering, and boiling be not adopted, a salt is precipitated which consists of a mixture of tribasic and tetrabasic silver salt. The colour of this mixed salt is lighter than that of the tribasic compound, and it gives on analysis a percentage of silver and vanadium intermediate between the two salts.

Silver orthovanadate is easily soluble in nitric acid and ammonia. For analysis it was dissolved in nitric acid, the silver being precipitated as chloride, and the vanadium estimated in the filtrate.

- (1) 0.385 substance gave 0.369 Ag Cl and 0.0076 Ag, or 74.12 per cent. of silver, and 0.0795 V_2 O_5 , or 11.59 per cent. of vanadium.
- (2) 0.522 substance, of another preparation, gave 0.508 Ag Cl and 0.0016 Ag, or 73.54 per cent. of silver, and 0.111 V_2O_5 , or 11.94 per cent. of vanadium.

Hence we have:-

٤		Calc	lated.	Found.		
				(1)	(2)	Mean.
\mathbf{Ag}_3		324.0	73.75	74.12	73.54	73.83
\mathbf{v}		51.3	11.67	11.59	11.94	11.86
O_4		64.0	14.58			
		$\overline{439.3}$	100.00			

- 2. Tetrabasic Silver Vanadate= $Ag_4V_2O_7$.—This salt is prepared by precipitating a solution of pure tetrasodium salt with a neutral solution of silver nitrate. It is a dense yellow precipitate, settling very easily when the liquid is warmed, and resembling in its appearance ordinary tribasic phosphate of silver.
- (1) 0.4725 substance gave 0.4105 Ag Cl and 0.0051 Ag, or 66.45 per cent. of silver, and 0.1345 V₂O₅, corresponding to 15.99 per cent. vanadium.

Hence we have :-

Ag_4		Calc	ulated.	Found.	
	,	432.0	66.81	66.45	
V_2		102.6	15.87	15.99	
O_7		112.0	$\boldsymbol{17.32}$		
		$\overline{646 \cdot 6}$	100.00		

From the foregoing experiments on the vanadates it appears:

- (1) That the soluble tribasic salts are less stable at the ordinary temperature than the tetrabasic compounds, Na₃ VO₄, splitting up in solution into free caustic soda and the pyro-salt.
 - (2) That at a high temperature, on the other hand, the tribasic form is the most

stable, V_2O_5 liberating three molecules of CO_2 when fused with carbonate of soda, but forming a monobasic (meta)salt when boiled with a solution of alkaline carbonate.

- (3) That as the majority of the naturally occurring vanadates are tribasic compounds, we may assume that these have been produced at a high temperature.
- (4) That in aqueous solutions the soluble pyrovanadates are easily decomposed by carbonic acid into an alkaline carbonate and a monobasic or metavanadate.

Hence the order of stability of the different vanadates at the ordinary temperatures is as follows:—

- Monobasic or metavanadates.
- (2) Tetrabasic or pyrovanadates.
- (3) Tribasic or orthovanadates.

In the phosphorus series the order of stability is (as is well known) exactly the reverse of this, the tribasic phosphoric acid and soluble orthophosphates being most stable, and being formed from the other two classes of acids and soluble salts, either by ebullition alone or in presence of weak acids.

I have much pleasure in acknowledging the able assistance which I have received from Messrs. ŒLHOFER and FINKELSTEIN in carrying out the above investigation.

XIX. On the Action of Rays of high Refrangibility upon Gaseous Matter. By John Tyndall, LL.D., F.R.S.

Received December 4, 1869,-Read January 27, 1870.

δI.

Introduction.

WITHIN the last ten years I have had the honour of submitting to the Royal Society a series of investigations the principal aim of which was to render the less refrangible rays of the spectrum interpreters and expositors of the molecular condition of matter.

Unlike the beautiful researches of Melloni and Knoblauch, these inquiries made radiant heat a means to an end. My thoughts were fixed on it in relation to the matter through which it passed. Placing before my mind such images of molecules and their constituents as modern science justifies or renders probable, such images of the luminiferous ether and its motions as the undulatory theory enables us to form, I endeavoured to fashion and execute experiments founded upon these conceptions which should give us a surer hold upon molecular constitution.

Thus, definite physical ideas have accompanied and guided the whole course of these researches. That matter is constituted of atoms and molecules has been accepted as a verity throughout. The phenomena under examination rendered it impossible for me to halt at the law of multiple proportions, which so many chemists of the present day appear inclined to make their intellectual bourne. In following up a train of ether waves, in idea, to their source, I could not place at that source a multiple proportion; the waves could not be connected physically with such a multiple; I was forced to put there a bit of matter, in other words, a molecule, which bore the same relation to the ether as a vibrating string does to the air which accepts its motions and transmits them as waves of sound.

One result among many others which these researches established will, I think, play an important part in the chemistry of the future. I refer to the proved change of relation between the luminiferous ether and ordinary matter which accompanies the act of chemical combination. Here, without any alteration in the quantity, or in the ultimate quality of the medium traversed by the ethereal waves, vast changes may occur in the amount of wave-motion intercepted. Let pure nitrogen and ordinary oxygen be mixed mechanically together in the proportion by weight of 14:8. Radiant heat, it is now known, will pass through the mixture as through a vacuum. No doubt a certain amount of heat is intercepted; but it is so small an amount as to be practically insensible. At all events it is multiplied by hundreds, if not by thousands, the moment the oxygen and nitrogen combine to form nitrous oxide. Or let nitrogen and hydrogen be mixed me-

chanically together in the proportion of 14:3; the amount of radiant heat which they then absorb is augmented more than a thousandfold the moment they build themselves together into molecules of ammonia. Neither the quantity nor the ultimate quality of the matter is here changed; the act of chemical union is the sole cause of the enormous alteration in the amount of heat intercepted. The converse of these statements is of course also true; dissolve the chemical bond, either of the nitrous oxide or of the ammonia, and you instantly destroy the absorption. As a proof that our atmosphere is a mixture, and not a compound, no experiment with which I am acquainted matches in point of conclusiveness that which demonstrates the deportment of dry air to radiant heat.

But the molecules which can thus intercept the waves of ether must be shaken by those waves, possibly shaken asunder. That ordinary thermometric heat provokes chemical actions is one of the commonest facts of observation. These actions, considered from a physical point of view, are changes of molecular position and arrangement consequent on the acceptance of motion from the source of heat. Radiant heat also, if sufficiently intense and if absorbed with sufficient avidity, could produce all the effects of ordinary thermometric heat. The dark rays, for example, which can make platinum white-hot, could also, if absorbed, produce the chemical effects of white-hot platinum. They could decompose water, as now in a moment they can boil water. But the decomposition in this case would be effected by the virtual conversion of the radiant heat into thermometric heat. There would be nothing in the act characteristic of radiation, or demanding it as an essential element in the decomposition.

The dark calorific rays are powerfully absorbed by various bodies, but, as a general rule, they do not appear competent to set up that particular motion among the constituents of a molecule which breaks the tie of chemical affinity. All the rays of the spectrum exercise no doubt chemical powers. We should have scant vegetation upon the earth's surface if the red and ultra-red rays of the sun were abolished. But the chemical actions in which the radiant form comes into play, are mainly produced by the least energetic rays of the spectrum. The photographer has his heat focus in advance of the chemical focus; which latter, though potent for his special purposes, possesses almost infinitely less mechanical energy than its neighbour. Some special relation must, therefore, as a general rule, subsist between chemical molecules and the more refrangible rays; we arrive at the conclusion that chemical decomposition by rays, to keep to the ordinary term, is less a matter of amplitude on the part of the vibrating ether particles than of time of vibration.

The decomposition of a molecule must result from the internal strain of its parts; to them, therefore, and not to the molecule as a whole, the vibrations which produce chemical change must be imparted. The question remains an outstanding one in molecular physics, why it is that the longer and more powerful ether waves are generally incompetent to set up the motion which results in decomposition. The influence of

^{*} It may be a millionfold; for we do not yet know how small the absorption of the absolutely pure mixture really is.

synchronism here suggests itself. These shorter waves are effectual because their motion is stored up. Their infinitesimal impulses, because imparted at the proper intervals, accumulate and finally become intense enough to jerk asunder the atoms with whose periods they are in accordance.

VII.

The investigation which I have now the honour to offer to the Royal Society is in a certain sense complementary to those referred to at the outset of this paper. It deals with the relations of gaseous matter to the most refrangible rays of the spectrum. It treats of the chemical energies of such rays as exerted upon such matter. If we except the combination of chlorine and hydrogen by light, and the decomposition of carbonic acid by the solar rays in the leaves of plants, which latter, however, may not be the decomposition of a gas, no fact I believe has hitherto been known to exist in which light, or heat in the radiant form, acts chemically upon a gas or vapour*. By this inquiry the range of radiant energy as a chemical agent is considerably extended; the phenomena resulting from that energy are exhibited in a new and exceedingly impressive form, and they prompt reflections regarding the possible influence of solar radiation on the gases, vapours, and effluvia of our atmosphere which could not previously be entertained.

The inquiry was started thus:—It is known to the Society that the experiments on radiant heat already referred to, were for the most part performed in tubes of brass or glass, called for the sake of distinction "experimental tubes." It is also known to the physical members of the Society that a difference† exists between my eminent friend. Professor Magnus‡ and myself with regard to the deportment of aqueous vapour towards radiant heat. Last autumn, and in reference to the reasons assigned by him for this difference, I scrutinized the appearance of my experimental tubes during the entrance into them of various gases and vapours. The vapours were carried into the tubes by dry air which had been permitted to bubble through their liquids. I watched carefully, and with the aid of magnifying-lenses, for any signs of the precipitation of moisture either upon the surface of the experimental tube itself or upon the plates of rock-salt employed to close it, keeping at the same time my eyes open to any other action which the intensely concentrated beam employed in the inquiry might reveal.

On the 9th of October, 1868, while thus engaged upon the vapour of the nitrite of amyl, I observed a curious cloudiness in the experimental tube when the beam was sent through the vapour. For a moment this appearance troubled me; for it required a little reflection to assure me that in my previous publications I had not sometimes ascribed to pure cloudless vapour actions which were really due to such nebulous matter as was then before me. The appearance, however, immediately declared itself to my mind as a product of chemical action then and there exerted on the vapour.

^{*} Professor Stokes reminds me that Phosgen gas derives its name from its formation under the influence of light.—[J. T., July 1870.] † To be still cleared up.

[‡] Unhappily lost to science since these words were written.—[J. T., July 1870.]

The nitrite vapour was then intentionally subjected to the action of the light. The beam employed was convergent. As the vapour reached the point of greatest concentration of the beam cloudy matter was there precipitated, which was afterwards whirled by the moving air into the more distant parts of the tube. The cloud thus carried away was incessantly renewed, and after the mixed air and vapour had ceased to enter, precipitation occurred all along the cone of rays in front of the focus.

The lamp was then extinguished, and the mixture of air and nitrite vapour permitted to enter the tube in the dark. When the tube was full the condensed beam was sent through it. For a moment the light seemed to pass through air only; but after a moment's pause a white cloud fell suddenly upon the conical portion of the beam, causing it to flash forth almost like an illuminated solid.

When the beam, previous to allowing it to enter the vapour, was caused to pass through a red or yellow glass, the action though visible was feeble; it was much more energetic when the beam passed through a blue glass. I sent a convergent beam through a red glass and observed the feeble effect. A blue glass was then added, and by the concert of both the light was completely cut off. On withdrawing the red glass, a very beautiful blue cloud came down upon the conical beam. The experiment proved that in this case, as in so many others, the blue rays are the "chemical rays."

Solar light, as might be expected, produces all the effects of the electric light, and in regions more favoured than London may be employed in continuous researches of this nature. When the parallel beams of the sun are duly concentrated, the precipitation which they invoke in passing through nitrite-of-amyl vapour is copious and immediate.

§ III.

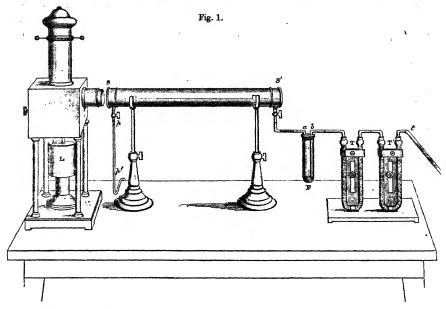
The simple apparatus employed in these experiments will be at once understood by reference to fig. 1. SS' is the glass experimental tube which has varied in length from 1 to 5 feet, and which may be from 2 to 3 inches in diameter. From the end S the pipe pp' passes to an air-pump. Connected with the other end we have the flask F, containing the liquid whose vapour is to be examined; then follows a U-tube, T, filled with fragments of clean glass wetted with sulphuric acid; then a second U-tube, T', containing fragments of marble wetted with caustic potash; and finally a narrow straight tube tt', containing a tolerably tightly fitting plug of cotton-wool. To save the air-pump gauge from the attack of such vapours as act on mercury, as also to facilitate observation, a separate barometer tube was employed.

Through the cork which stops the flask F two glass tubes, a and b, pass air-tight. The tube a ends immediately under the cork; the tube b, on the contrary, descends to the bottom of the flask and dips into the liquid. The end of the tube b is drawn out so as to render very small the orifice through which the air escapes into the liquid.

The experimental tube S S' being exhausted, a cock at the end S' is carefully turned on. The air passes slowly through the cotton-wool, the caustic potash, and the sulphuric

1 210

acid in succession. Thus purified it enters the flask F and bubbles through the liquid. Charged with vapour it finally passes into the experimental tube, where it is submitted



to examination. The electric lamp L placed at the end of the experimental tube furnished the necessary beam.

§ IV.

The floating Matter of the Air.

Prior to the discovery of the foregoing action, and also during the experiments just referred to, the nature of my work compelled me to aim at obtaining experimental tubes absolutely clean upon the surface, and absolutely empty within. Neither condition is, however, easily attained.

For however well the tubes might be washed and polished, and however bright and pure they might appear in ordinary daylight, the electric beam infallibly revealed signs and tokens of dirt. The air was always present, and it was sure to deposit some impurity. All chemical processes, not conducted in a vacuum, are open to this disturbance. When the experimental tube was exhausted it exhibited no trace of floating matter, but on admitting the air through the U-tubes containing caustic potash and sulphuric acid, a dust-cone more or less distinct was always revealed by the powerfully condensed electric beam.

The floating motes resembled minute particles of liquid which had been carried me-

chanically into the experimental tube. Precautions were therefore taken to prevent any such transfer. They produced little or no mitigation. I did not imagine at the time that the dust of the external air could find such free passage through the caustic potash and the sulphuric-acid tubes. But the motes really came from without. They also passed with freedom through a variety of ethers and alcohols placed in the flask F. In fact, it requires long-continued action on the part of an acid first to wet the motes and afterwards to destroy them. By carefully passing the air through the flame of a spirit-lamp or through a platinum tube heated to bright redness, the floating matter was sensibly destroyed. It was therefore combustible, in other words, organic matter*. I tried to intercept it by a large respirator of cotton-wool tied round the end of the tube tt. Close pressure was necessary to render the wool effective. A plug of the wool rammed pretty tightly into the tube tt' was finally found competent to hold back the motes. They appeared from time to time afterwards and gave me much trouble; but they were invariably traced in the end to some defect in the purifying-apparatus,—to some crack or flaw in the sealing-wax used to render the tubes air-tight. Without due care, moreover, liquid particles may also be carried mechanically over. To prevent the entrance of such into the experimental tube, the narrow conduit which connects it with the flask F is plugged with clean asbestos. Thus through proper care, but not without a great deal of searching out of disturbances, the experimental tube, even when filled with pure air or vapour, contains nothing competent to scatter the light. The space within it has the aspect of an absolute vacuum.

An experimental tube in this condition I call optically empty.

Here follows one of the numerous experiments executed in relation to this subject. A platinum tube 9 inches long, 0.4 of an inch wide, and having within it a roll of platinum gauze, was placed in a gas-furnace where it could be intensely heated. One end of this tube was connected with the entry stopcock of the experimental tube SS', fig. 1, the other end was open to the air of the laboratory. The air was sent first through the platinum tube cold, then through the same tube heated to various degrees of redness, into the experimental tube, where it was subjected to the scrutiny of the concentrated electric beam. Here are the results.

Quantity of air.	State of platinum tube.	State of experimental tube.
15 in. of mercury.	Cold.	Full of floating particles.
15 ,,	Red-hot.	Optically empty.
15 ,,	Cold.	Full of floating particles.
15 "	Red-hot.	Optically empty.
15 "	Intensely heated.	An exceedingly fine cloud, which
		discharged perfectly polarized
		blue light in a direction at right
		angles to the illuminating beam.

^{*} Mr. Dancer has recently examined microscopically the dust of Manchester, and found it to consist almost wholly of organic particles.

. . .

Here the character of the floating matter is very clearly shown. The non-combustible or inorganic part of it was too minute to be revealed by the concentrated beam. The tube after its combustion appeared "optically empty."

The "blue cloud" just referred to was due to the too rapid passage of the air through the intensely heated tube, which prevented the perfect combustion of the floating matter. It was to all intents and purposes the *smoke* of the particles*. The subject is further illustrated by the following series of experiments:—

. Quantity of air.		antity of air.	State of platinum tube.	State of experimental tube.	
15 i	nche	s.	Cold.	Full of particles.	
15	,,		Dull red.	Optically empty.	
15	"		Intensely heated.	Optically empty.	
30	,,		Intensely heated.	Optically empty.	
15	,,	(admitted quickly)		A perfectly polarized blue cloud.	
15	,,	(quickly).	Barely visible redness.	Particles.	
15	"	(quickly).	Intensely heated.	Blue cloud.	
15	97	(slower).	"	A very fine blue cloud.	
15	,,	(very slow).	**	Optically empty.	
15	,,		Cold.	Full of particles.	
15	,,	(quickly).	Red-hot.	Blue cloud.	

The polarization of light by such clouds as the blue ones here mentioned will receive due attention subsequently.

A remarkably fine experiment may be thus made:—Placing a spirit-lamp underneath the cylindrical beam of the electric lamp as it marks its track upon the illuminated dust of the atmosphere, torrents of what would be infallibly mistaken for black smoke rise from the flame into the beam. A Bunsen's flame produces the same effect. But the action of a red-hot poker placed underneath the beam is precisely similar; the action of a hydrogen flame, moreover, where smoke is out of the question, is not to be distinguished from that of the spirit-lamp flame. The apparent smoke rises even when the flame or the poker is placed at a good distance below the beam. The action is really due to the destruction of the floating matter by contact with the heated body. It sends upwards streams of air from which every thing competent to scatter the light has been removed. This air, in passing through the beam, jostles aside the illuminated particles, the space it occupies being black in contrast with the adjacent luminosity. The experiment is capable of various instructive modifications, and may of course be executed with sunlight.

It is needless to dwell upon the possible influence of the floating organic matter of the air upon health. Its quantity, when illuminated by a powerful and strongly concentrated beam, appears sometimes to be enormous. One recoils from the idea of placing the mouth at the intensely illuminated focus and inhaling the swimming dirt revealed there. Nor

^{*} In subsequent experiments I found that this "smoke" arose in great part from the action of the heated air upon the india-rubber joint which connected the platinum tube with the experimental tube.

is the disgust removed by the reflection that at a distance from the focus, though we do not see the dirt, we are breathing precisely the same air. The difficulty of wetting it before referred to, may render this suspended matter comparatively harmless to the lungs, but where these are fragile its mere mechanical irritation must go for something. Perhaps a respirator of cotton-wool might in some cases be found useful*.

δV.

I now return to the nitrite of amyl. The action of light upon the vapour of this substance is exceedingly prompt and energetic. It may be illustrated by simply blowing the vapour into a concentrated sunbeam. Or the experiment may be made to take the following form:—Connecting the tube b of the flask F with the pipe of a bellows, after inflating the latter a sharp tap upon its board sends a puff of vapour through the tube a into the air. In a moderately lighted space nothing is seen; but when the puff is projected into a concentrated sunbeam, or into the beam from the electric lamp, on crossing the limiting boundary of light and shade it is instantly precipitated as a white ring. The ring has of course the same mechanical course as the smoke-rings puffed from the mouth of a cannon, but it is latent until revealed by actinic precipitation \dagger .

In every one of the numerous experiments made with the nitrite of amyl, the chemical energy appeared to exhaust itself in the frontal portion of the experimental tube. A dense white cloud would fall for a distance of 12 or 15 inches upon the beam, while beyond this distance the tube would appear almost empty. This absence of action might naturally be ascribed to the diffusion of the beam beyond the focus; but when the light was so converged as to bring the focus near the distant end of the tube the effect was the same. When, moreover, a concave mirror received a parallel beam which had traversed the tube, and returned it into the vapour in a high state of luminous concentration, the light was ineffectual. The passage of the beam through a comparatively small depth of the vapour appeared to extract from it those constituents which produced decomposition. That the vapour was present at the distant end of the tube, was proved by the fact that both with the sun and with the electric light the reversal of the tube instantly brought down a heavy cloud. As regards the chemical rays nitrite of amyl is the blackest substance that I have yet encountered. It rapidly extinguishes them, leaving behind a beam of sensibly undiminished photometric intensity, but powerless as a chemical agent as far as the nitrite is concerned.

In these experiments air was employed as the vehicle of the nitrite-of-amyl vapour. By varying the quantity sent into the experimental tube, it was possible to vary in a remarkable manner the character of the resulting decomposition. The most splendid diffraction colours could be thus produced, and the finest texture could be imparted to the clouds. When pure oxygen or pure nitrogen was used, the effect was almost the same

^{*} Since this paper was forwarded to the Royal Society these experiments have been greatly extended. See Proceedings of the Royal Institution, January 1870.—[J. T., July 1870].

[†] By a special arrangement it is easy to obtain such rings 2 inches and more in diameter.

as with air. With hydrogen the clouds appeared more delicate and lustrous; and they sometimes fell immediately after their formation in nebulous festoons to the bottom of the tube. This doubtless is to be ascribed to the attenuation of the atmosphere in which they floated. In many cases, however, the particles remained suspended, and some of them continued to float even after the tube had been so far exhausted as to produce a tolerably good air-pump vacuum.

An additional effect of considerable beauty and interest is obtained in the following way. Permitting the convergent beam to play for a time upon the mixture of air and nitrite-of-amyl vapour, or, better still, upon mixture of hydrogen and vapour, a coarse cloud is formed. Suspending the action of the lamp for a minute or so, a new distribution of the vapour appears to occur; for, on reigniting the lamp, along its convergent beam, and within the old cloud, a new cloud is precipitated. The tint of this new cloud is a delicate bluish white, and its texture is of exquisite fineness. This precipitation of one cloud within another may be obtained a dozen times in succession. Or, permitting a parallel beam to pass for a time through the coarser cloud, on pushing out the lens so as to concentrate the light, the fine cloud comes suddenly down upon the beam about its place of greatest concentration. This effect also may be obtained several times with the same charge of vapour.

No phenomena of the kind thus far described have, I believe, been hitherto observed. The necessary conditions for their production are, first, that the light should decompose the vapour, and secondly, that one or more of the products of decomposition should either be a solid, or should possess a boiling-point so high as to ensure its precipitation when set free.

For though chemical action might occur, and be even energetic, if the products of decomposition be vaporous and colourless they will remain unseen. In the case just considered, the nitrate of amyl is in all probability a product of the decomposition of the nitrite. The boiling-point of the latter is estimated at from 91° to 96° C., that of the former being 149°C. The nitrite, therefore, can maintain itself as true vapour in a space where the nitrate, at the moment of its liberation, must fall as a cloud.

& VI.

An exceedingly fine example of actinic action is furnished by the vapour of the iodide of allyl. The effect of light upon this substance was observed on the 7th of October, 1868, but I did not then know the meaning of the "thin cloud like a kind of smoke" which showed itself in the experimental tube. On satisfying myself regarding the deportment of nitrite of amyl, the iodide of allyl occurred to me, and on it experiments were immediately made.

The decomposition of this vapour was slower than that of the nitrite of amyl. The slowness, moreover, augmented rapidly as the quantity of vapour was diminished. When only a few inches of the mixed air and vapour were in the experimental tube the action was very slow. The clouds were formed both in oxygen and in air. After the 2z

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action had been continued for some time, the fine purple colour of iodine exhibited itself at the end of the tube most distant from the source of light. When hydrogen was the vehicle, the clouds were particularly lustrous and beautiful. Here and there also, amid the white and coarser sections of a cloud, spaces of delicate blue would reveal themselves, reminding one of the colour of a pure sky. The words "wonderful," "beautiful," "lustrous," and others of a similar nature, occur frequently and naturally in my notes of this period; for in those earlier experiments the cloud-forms obtained were so amazing, and their colours and textures so fine, as to rivet attention upon them alone.

With long-continued action the colour due to the discharge of iodine became very intense. It was strong enough to empurple the beam which passed through the air of the laboratory after its transmission through the experimental tube, and to colour deeply a white screen on which the beam was permitted to fall. In what condition was this iodine? It could be liberated by a beam deprived almost wholly of its calorific rays. The temperature of the experimental tube was indeed so moderate that a quantity of iodine placed within it and permitted to saturate the space with its vapour, produced a barely perceptible flush on a piece of white paper placed there expressly to detect it. The far more deeply coloured iodine revealed by the beam in the actinic cloud must, I think, have been for the most part liquid, and not vaporous iodine. I say liquid, because the substance was probably dissolved by the particles of the cloud with which it was so intimately mixed. Di-allyl, for example, is a powerful solvent of iodine, and it was probably one of the products of decomposition.

The iodide of isopropyl also capitally illustrates the action of light upon vapours. It is more slowly acted upon than either the nitrite of amyl or the iodide of allyl; nevertheless, in sufficient quantity, its decomposition is very brisk and energetic. Purified air which had bubbled through the liquid iodide was conducted into the experimental tube. When the pressure was 1 inch of mercury, the light playing upon the vapour for five minutes produced no action; but when it was 10 inches a blue cloud made its appearance in two minutes, and in ten minutes it had almost filled the tube. When the pressure was 20 inches, the action commenced more quickly, and the cloud generated was more dense. The whirling motions of this cloud appeared to be more brisk than that of the others examined. With 30 inches of the mixed air and iodide the action began in a quarter of a minute, and in five minutes a dense cloud was formed throughout the tube. The purple of the discharged iodine was also very plain in this cloud.

§ VII.

In the preliminary notice of these experiments laid before the Royal Society in June 1868, considerable stress is laid upon the fact that the same rays are absorbed by the nitrite of amyl in the liquid and in the vaporous state. A layer of the liquid not more than one-eighth of an inch in thickness was found competent to withdraw from a powerful beam all the constituents which could effect the decomposition of its vapour. The action of the nitrite resembles in this respect that of the sulphate of quinine on the rays which

cause it to fluoresce. Both substances quench the effectual rays close to the surface at which they enter.

I endeavoured at the time to apply this fact to the solution of the question whether the absorption of chemical energy was the act of the molecule as a whole, or of its constituent atoms. I tried to show that on the first of these assumptions it is impossible for the self-same rays to be absorbed by a liquid and its vapour. For absorption depends upon the rate of molecular vibration, and reaches its maximum when this rate synchronizes perfectly with the rate of succession of the ethereal waves. Now as the rate of molecular vibration depends upon the elastic forces exerted between the molecules, and as it could hardly be imagined that these forces would remain undisturbed during the passage of a vapour to the liquid condition, the fact of the liquid nitrite of amyl and its vapour absorbing the same rays indicated that the absorption was not molecular. We were thus driven to conclude that it was atomic*; and this conclusion was fortified by the consideration already adverted to,—that were the absorption the act of the molecule as a whole, no mechanical ground could be assigned for the falling asunder of its atoms. Thus actinic action itself pointed out the seat of the absorption.

A wide, if not entire generality was anticipated for the proposition that the same rays are absorbed by a liquid and its vapour. I have now no reason to retract this anticipation; but when it was expressed I believed that liquids in general would be found so destructive of the effectual rays as to render transmission through moderate depths of them sufficient to rob a beam of all power to act upon their vapours. This idea, entertained though not expressed, has not been verified, and the deportment of iodide of allyl may be taken as representative of a class of facts which contradict it.

Glass cells were employed varying from one-eighth of an inch to an inch in width. Filled with the transparent iodide, these cells were placed between the electric lamp and the experimental tube charged with the iodide vapour. The rays after traversing an inch of the liquid produced copious decomposition in the tube. A marked distinction was thus proved to exist between the liquid iodide of allyl and the liquid nitrite of amyl.

But the same distinction extends to their vapours. The exceeding absorbent avidity of the nitrite-of-amyl vapour, and the rapidity with which it deprives a powerful beam of its effective constituents, have been already noticed. It is quite different with the iodide of allyl. A tube 5 feet long was charged with the iodide vapour, and after it, in the same line, was placed another tube 3 feet long charged with the same vapour. On sending a beam through both tubes in succession, the 5-foot tube, through which the light first passed, was filled immediately with an actinic cloud; but a similar cloud was at the

time falling in the second tube. A transmission through 5 feet did not seem to

^{*} When I use the word "atomic" in contrast with "molecular," I by no means pledge myself to an absolute limit of divisibility. The molecule may resemble a house, the atoms the hard bricks composing that house. But while it is both convenient and correct to regard the house as constituted of bricks definitely bounded, it is by no means essential to regard the bricks themselves as absolutely indivisible. The divisibility of the atoms does not in the least affect the atomic theory as a working conception.

diminish very materially the power of the beam. A passage through I foot of the nitrite of amyl would have been far more destructive.

As these actions are representative and, I believe, important, I will here sum up some recent confirmatory experiments executed with the two substances now under consideration.

- 1°. The vaporous nitrite of amyl absorbs with such avidity the rays competent to decompose it, that a very small depth of the vapour quenches the efficient rays of a powerful beam of solar or electric light.
- 2°. The vaporous iodide of allyl, on the contrary, permits a beam to traverse it for long distances without very materially diminishing the chemical power of the beam.
- 3°. The liquid nitrite of amyl, in a stratum one quarter of an inch thick, quenches all the rays which could act chemically upon its vapour.
- 4°. The liquid iodide of allyl, on the contrary, in a stratum of four times the thickness just mentioned, does not materially diminish the power of the beam to act upon its vapour.
- 5°. A very marked difference exists between the deportment of the nitrite of amyl alone, and its deportment when mixed with hydrochloric acid. The chemical penetrability of the mixture is far greater than that of the pure vapour. The actinic cloud, which with the vapour alone is confined to the anterior portion of the experimental tube, extends in the case of the mixture through the entire tube.
- 6°. A beam, moreover, which has been transmitted through a quarter of an inch of the liquid nitrite is also competent to act chemically upon the mixture, and to produce in it dense actinic clouds.

The action in this last case, though not stopped by the liquid nitrite, is retarded. Employing first the liquid screen, it was interesting to observe the sudden development of a fine-grained luminous cloud, and its violent tumbling about by the decomposing beam the moment the liquid was withdrawn. The action of a solution of the yellow chromate of potash is substantially the same as that of the liquid nitrite. By the successive introduction and removal of a cell containing either substance, successive flashes of actinic energy may be produced a dozen times and more in the same vapour.

The molecular relationship of a liquid and its vapour receives new illustration from these experiments. Whatever alters the action of the one appears to change in a proportionate degree the action of the other.

§ VIII.

Carbonic acid is decomposed by the solar beams in the leaves of plants; but here it is in presence of a substance, chlorophyll, ready, as it were, to take advantage of the loosening of the atoms by the solar rays. The present investigation has furnished numerous cases of a similar mode of action. All the vapours examined may be more or less powerfully affected in their actinic relations by the presence of a second body with which they can interact. The presence, for example, of nitric acid, or of hydrochloric

acid, may either greatly intensify or greatly diminish the visible action of the light on many vapours decomposable alone or when mixed with air; while the presence of the one or the other of the same acids may provoke energetic actions in substances which are wholly inactive when left to themselves.

We need not go beyond the nitrite of amyl for an example of this kind. For, prompt and copious as the decomposition of this substance is when mixed with air, the energy and brilliancy of the action are materially augmented by the presence of hydrochloric acid. Let a quantity of the nitrite vapour mixed with air be sent into the experimental tube till the mercury column sinks, say, 8 inches. Then let the flask containing the nitrite be removed and one containing strong hydrochloric acid be put in its place. Let purified air which has bubbled through the acid be carried into the experimental tube until a further depression of 8 inches is obtained. On allowing the convergent beam to play upon this mixture a cloud of extraordinary density and brilliance is precipitated. The beam appears to pierce like a shining sword the nebulous mass of its own creation, tossing the precipitated particles in heaps right and left of it. This experiment is very easily made, and nothing could more finely or forcibly illustrate the phenomena here under consideration.

By varying the proportions of the vapour to the acid we vary the effects. For example, the proportion of 1 inch of the nitrite vapour to 15 inches of the hydrochloric acid did not produce so brilliant an effect as the proportion 8:8. The same is true of the proportion 15 inches of nitrite vapour to 1 inch of hydrochloric acid. But in this latter case, though the general action was less intense than in the case of 8:8, the iridescences due to diffraction were much finer. No doubt for each particular substance a determinable proportion exists which corresponds to the maximum of actinic action*.

The nitrite of butyl affords another striking example of the influence of a second body in the experimental tube. With air, or alone, it was not visibly affected by the light; there was no cloud formed by its exposure. It was also mixed with nitric acid in various proportions, but no visible effect was produced by the beam.

It was then tried with air which had been permitted to bubble through pure hydrochloric acid in the following proportions:—

- 1. 1 inch of air and vapour to 15 inches of air and acid.
- 2. 8 inches ,, ,, 8 ,, ,, 3. 15 inches ,, ,, 1 inch ,, ,,

In the first case a dense and brilliant cloud was immediately precipitated. In the second case the precipitation of the fine white cloud was confined to the convergent luminous cone, coarser particles being scattered through the rest of the tube. In the third case the cloud was very coarse and very scanty. The experiment indicates that the best effect is obtained when a small quantity of the vapour is mixed with a considerable quantity of the acid.

Benzol is also a good example of a substance which, when alone, defies the power of

^{*} This might form the subject of an interesting inquiry.

the light, but which in the presence of other substances is readily decomposed. During the earlier stages of this inquiry a vast number of experiments were made with benzel and commercial hydrochloric acid. The results well illustrate actinic action, but they are not to be accepted as indicative of the action of pure hydrochloric acid. Indeed with the pure acid and benzel vapour there is no visible action.

On the 16th of November, 1868, 2 inches of air and benzol vapour were sent into the experimental tube, and afterwards the tube was filled with air which had bubbled through the commercial acid. My notes, written at the time, describe the action of light upon the mixture as producing a cloud of an exquisite sky-blue colour, only more luminous and ethereal than the sky. The figure of the cloud was also very wonderful.

This cloud was permitted to remain for fifteen hours in the experimental tube uninfluenced by light. After this interval it was found still floating, being composed of curiously shaped granular sections joined together by others of more delicate hue and texture. The renewed light set the cloud immediately in motion, the granular parts disappeared, and the whole for a length of 18 inches resumed its primitive delicate hue and texture. In some portions it became white or whitish grey, but at others it was a pure firmamental blue. It became very dense as the light continued to act, and finally developed itself into a form of astonishing complexity and beauty.

The experimental tube had then a current of dry air swept through it, and it was afterwards exhausted. 2 inches of the benzol vapour were admitted as before, and dry air was added until the tube was full. It required five minutes' action of the light to develope the faintest visible cloud; even after ten minutes' action the cloud was very faint*. The tube was again cleansed and exhausted, 2 inches of the benzol vapour were admitted, followed by air and hydrochloric acid until the tube was full. On starting the light chemical action began almost immediately, and ended by the formation of a cloud throughout the tube. The influence of the commercial hydrochloric acid is here demonstrated. The interaction of nitric acid and benzol will be immediately referred to.

Bisulphide of carbon is also an illustration in point. Alone or mixed with air it resists the action of the light; in the presence of hydrochloric or of nitric acid it is responsive to that action. On the 17th of November, 1868, for example, the pure vapour was admitted into the experimental tube until a depression of 2 inches of the mercury column was observed. A powerful light was permitted to act for twelve minutes upon the vapour, but no action was observed. A quantity of air which had passed through aqueous hydrochloric acid was then admitted into the tube. Six minutes subsequent action of the light developed a cloud of considerable density. Toluol and other substances might here be mentioned in further illustration of this mode of decomposition. But I pass over hundreds of these earlier experiments which were made chiefly to instruct myself and to secure me from error. Some definite results will be given further on.

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^{*} It was certainly due to a residue of the previous charge.

VIX.

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I have now to introduce, though only for partial treatment, a subject which might with advantage be kept isolated, but which is so mixed up with my notes of 1868 as to be inseparable from the descriptions of chemical action which they contain. I refer to the blue colour always exhibited at the birth of clouds obtained from small quantities of vapour in the case of active substances, and often from large quantities in the case of substances of slow decomposition. The first distinct record of this appearance occurs in my notes for the 10th of October, 1868. On the 9th I had been engaged upon the iodide of allyl with reference to its interaction with hydrochloric acid. Small quantities only of the vapour had been employed; and it was found that when the acid was fresh and strong the action was vigorous, that it declined in energy as successive charges of dry air were sent through the acid, becoming vanishingly feeble on the fifth filling of the experimental tube.

On the morning of the 10th the tube used on the preceding day was washed with distilled water, and swept out by a current of dry air. A mixture of air and hydrochloric acid was then sent into it, no vapour of any kind being employed. When the light first passed through it, and for some time afterwards, the experimental tube appeared perfectly empty. Slowly and gradually, however, upon the condensed beam a cloud was formed which passed in colour from the deepest violet, through blue, to whiteness. To this record of my note-book the remark is added, "connect this blue with the colour of the sky."

In fact it was impossible to avoid seeing the relationship of both. Previous to this entry the blue had attracted my attention. It was unfailing it its appearance when the action was slow. The blue colour was in all cases the herald of the denser actinic cloud. I took a pleasure in developing it in connexion with general actinic action, and in determining whether in all its bearings and phenomena the blue light was not identical with the light of the sky. This to the most minute detail appears to be the case. The incipient actinic clouds are to all intents and purposes pieces of artificial sky, and they furnish an experimental demonstration of the constitution of the real one.

Reserving the fuller discussion of the subject for a subsequent paper, it may be stated in a general way that all the phenomena of polarization observed in the case of skylight are manifested by these blue actinic clouds; and that they exhibit additional phenomena which it would be neither convenient to pursue, nor perhaps possible to detect, upon the actual firmament. They enable us, for example, to follow the growth and modification of the phenomena of polarization from their first appearance in the barely visible blue, to their final extinction when the cloud has become so coarsely granular as no longer to scatter polarized light.

These changes, as far as it is now necessary to refer to them, may be thus described.

1°. The incipient cloud, as long as it continues blue, discharges polarized light in all directions, but the direction of maximum polarization is at right angles to the direction of the illuminating beam.

- 2°. As long as the colour of the cloud remains distinctly blue, the light discharged from it normally is perfectly polarized; this light may be utterly quenched by a Nicol's prism, the cloud from which it issues being caused to disappear. Any deviation of the line of vision from the normal enables a portion of the light to reach the eye in all positions of the prism.
- 3°. The plane of polarization of the perfectly polarized light is parallel to the direction of the illuminating beam. Hence a plate of tourmaline with its axis parallel to the beam stops the light, and with its axis perpendicular to the beam transmits it.
- 4°. A plate of selenite placed between the Nicol and the cloud shows the colours of polarized light, and as long as the cloud continues blue these colours are most vivid in the direction of the normal.
- 5°. The particles of the incipient cloud are immeasurably small, but they gradually grow in size, and at a certain period of their growth cease to discharge perfectly polarized light. For some time afterwards the light that reaches the eye, when the Nicol is in its position of minimum transmission, is of a magnificent blue colour. It is called in the following pages the residual blue.
- 6°. Thus the waves that first feel the influence of size, both at the minor and major polarizing limits of the growing particles, are the smallest waves of the spectrum. These waves are the first to accept polarization and the first to escape from it.
- 7°. As the actinic cloud grows coarser in texture the direction of maximum polarization changes from the normal, enclosing an angle more or less acute with the axis of the illuminating beam.
- 8°. In passing from section to section of the same cloud the plane of polarization often undergoes a rotation of 90°. In the following pages this is designated as a change from positive to negative polarization, or the reverse.

ŞΧ.

The experiments on benzol vapour and hydrochloric acid now to be described are of interest on optical rather than on chemical grounds. They were preceded by other experiments in which the vapour was mixed with nitric acid, and a minute residue of the latter lingering in the experimental tube may have influenced the results. The hydrochloric acid employed, moreover, was the commercial acid, and could not be regarded as pure. Thus though the decomposition of a vapour was certain, that it was not the pure vapour of benzol mixed with pure hydrochloric acid gas may be taken for granted. Indeed other experiments executed with the pure acid reduced the action to nil.

Dry air charged with the benzol vapour was permitted to enter the tube till a depression of one inch of the mercurial column was obtained; half an atmosphere of air charged with hydrochloric acid was then added. The action of light on this mixture was very powerful. The tube was for a moment optically empty, but its transparent contents were immediately shaken into a dense and luminous cloud. The normal polarization was here feeble, the oblique strong; the selenite colours in the former case were weak,

in the latter brilliant. When the line of vision was transverse, the colours seemed mainly limited to red and green.

The tube was swept with dry air and exhausted. Half an inch of air and benzel vapour was admitted, and after it half an atmosphere of air and hydrochloric acid. A fine blue colour soon appeared, and as long as it continued the direction of maximum polarization was along the normal. But a luminous white cloud was rapidly generated, the normal polarization becoming feeble and the oblique strong. The distant end of the cloud, however, continued blue, and in passing from it to the white cloud the plane of polarization changed 90°.

The tube was again exhausted, and a quarter of an inch of air and benzol vapour was permitted to enter it, followed by a quarter of an atmosphere of air and hydrochloric acid. The incipient cloud showed an exceedingly fine blue, the polarization along the normal being a maximum. The cloud gradually thickened at the centre, and finally the polarization there disappeared. As before, when the normal polarization became feeble the oblique became strong.

The tube was once more cleansed and one-tenth of an inch of air and vapour was admitted, followed by one-tenth of an atmosphere of hydrochloric acid and air. The blue of the incipient cloud was here superb, and it lasted longer than in the last case. The selenite tints produced by the normally polarized light were exceedingly brilliant; but they faded gradually as the cloud passed from blue to whitish blue. At the centre of the cloud the normal polarization first fell to nil and then reappeared, having changed, however, from positive to negative, the two ends remaining as before. The influence of attenuation on the production of the blue colour is here strikingly exemplified.

The tube containing the benzol vapour was again cleansed and exhausted, and the last experiment was repeated. That is to say, one-tenth of an atmosphere of the air and vapour was mixed with one-tenth of an atmosphere of hydrochloric acid. After ten minutes' action the actinic cloud was found divided into five segments, alternately blue and white. Every two adjacent segments of the cloud were oppositely polarized, being divided from each other by a section of no polarization. The rectangle (fig. 2) represents the several divisions of the cloud; the letters B and W denoting the blue and white segments respectively. The transverse lines represent the neutral sections.

Fig. 2.						
В	w	В	w	В		

On the 9th of December, 1868, some experiments were made with the nitrite of butyl which merit a passing notice.

Atmospheric air was permitted to bubble through the nitrite until the experimental tube was quite filled with the mixture. Fifteen minutes' exposure produced a very slight action, an exceedingly scanty and coarse precipitate being formed. When due care is taken the action entirely disappears.

3 A

I inch of the mixed air and vapour was now admitted into the experimental tube, and after it half an atmosphere of air which had bubbled through aqueous hydrochloric acid. The instant the beam passed through the experimental tube an intensely white cloud was precipitated.

The tube being cleansed, one-tenth of an inch of the nitrite and air, followed by one-tenth of an atmosphere of air and hydrochloric acid, was sent into it. The blue of the incipient cloud was in this instance perfectly superb. The polarization at right angles to the beam was perfect, and the selenite colours exceedingly vivid. As the cloud thickened the polarization along the normal disappeared, but it became strong obliquely. Two neutral points were observed by oblique vision in the case of this cloud. This effect is not uncommon.

The tube was withdrawn from the light for six minutes; on reexamination the cloud was found to have lost its beauty of form; and now the cloud-centre, by normal vision, polarized the light in a plane opposite to that of the two ends.

Twelve bubbles of the air and nitrite vapour were then sent into the exhausted experimental tube, and after them thirty-six bubbles of air and hydrochloric acid; several minutes' exposure produced no action. 3 inches of hydrochloric acid were then added, and the same superb blue as that noticed in the last experiment soon made itself manifest. It faded gradually as the cloud became more dense, and finally merged into whiteness.

The mixture of nitrite of amyl and hydrochloric acid was also examined in small quantities; but though the blue was fine, it had not the splendid depth and purity of the colour obtained with the nitrite of butyl.

δ XI.

The whole of the autumn of 1868 was devoted to the investigation from which I have taken the foregoing brief extracts. During this period 100 different substances must, I think, have been subjected to examination, and in the case of many of them the experimental tube must have been exhausted and refilled from 50 to 100 times. In some instances, indeed, the largest of these numbers falls considerably short of the truth. For a time I had no notion of the delicacy of the inquiry, nor of the caution required to prevent the action of infinitesimal residues and impurities from being mistaken for the decomposition of substances really inert. The necessity of thoroughly cleansing, or renewing, every tube and every stopcock, on passing from one substance to another, became gradually apparent. Water, alcohol, caustic potash, and acids were successively employed to cleanse the experimental tubes; but the method found most convenient, and that finally adopted, consists in the thorough lathering and sponging out of the tubes with soft soap and hot water, and the flooding of them with pure water afterwards. They are then dried with clean towels, and finally polished by the passing to and fro within them, by means of a ramrod, of a clean silk handkerchief. The stopcocks are cleansed by suitable brushes; fresh cocks, a fresh tube, and a fresh plug of asbestos being employed for each fresh substance.

From the draft of the present memoir, written last February, I take a few notes indicative of the difficulties caused by small impurities. Wishing to set my mind at rest with regard to nitric acid and hydrochloric acid, I operated for a time upon these substances unmixed with any vapour. 15 inches of air which had been permitted to bubble through aqueous nitric acid were sent into the experimental tube. The decomposing beam was first sent through a stratum of the liquid acid an inch in thickness. It screened the vapour effectually; no visible decomposition was produced. In this case, at the beginning of the experiment, there were a few scattered particles in the tube.

The cell containing the liquid acid was removed, and a minute afterwards a delicate blue colour began to shed itself among the floating particles. It augmented in intensity for five minutes, but during that time it could be entirely quenched by the Nicol, the particles floating in the blue being left intact.

These floating particles (mechanically carried in) extended only about 6 inches down the experimental tube. Beyond them was a streak of fine actinic blue perfectly polarized, and beyond this again a dusky grey cloud, which showed no trace of polarization.

After ten minutes' action the cloud had assumed a fair density, but it suggested doubts whether it was due purely to the nitric acid or to the interaction of the acid and some accidental impurity. The experiment was repeated four times with substantially the same result. In all cases the beam when passed through the liquid acid proved powerless; but always on the removal of this screen, or on displacing it by a cell of water, an action was manifested. To all appearance the nitric acid alone generated an actinic cloud.

The experiments, however, did not quite set my mind at rest. The tube was cleansed and the stopcocks heated to redness. When subsequently exposed the nitric acid required a much longer time to develope a cloud. After five minutes' exposure with no cell interposed the faintest blue cloud was visible. After ten minutes' exposure the cloud, at first seen with difficulty, was evident for some distance down the tube. By the complete removal of residues and by strict attention to the cerate employed to make the tubes air-tight, the action thus lessened was caused finally to disappear. In each of the experiments with nitric acid recorded in the following pages the acid itself was first tried, and not until its perfect visible inertness had been proved was it permitted to mix with the vapour.

I also wished to set my mind at rest regarding the action of hydrochloric acid. Several experimental tubes were sponged with soap and hot water, washed with alcohol, and finally flooded with hot water. They were then thoroughly dried and mounted. On a first trial most of them showed a feeble actinic action, which on a second trial usually disappeared. In one case the light generated a fine blue cloud which stretched throughout the entire length of an experimental tube 3 feet long. One whitish spot only of the cloud discharged imperfectly polarized light. The cloud could be utterly quenched by the Nicol, with the exception of a small patch of residual blue about 2 inches long, which was left curiously suspended in the general darkness of the tube.

On thoroughly cleansing with dry air the tube containing the cloud, and trying the

acid a second time, an exposure of twenty minutes was found to produce no action. This and many other similar experiments demonstrate the inertness of pure hydrochloric acid. The inert acid of the foregoing experiment was permitted to remain in the experimental tube all night. Next morning, when the beam was permitted to play upon it, a blue streak became visible in less than a minute. In ten minutes the tube was filled with a delicate cloud. This was an almost every-day occurrence at the time here referred to. There must have been something in this tube in the morning which was not there on the preceding night. An infinitesimal residue had crept out of the stopcocks, or the hydrochloric acid had acted on the cerate employed to render the tube air-tight.

And here I would allude in passing to an effect which at a future stage of this inquiry will be found suggestive of the mechanism by which the complex cloud-forms are produced. I touched the top and bottom of the experimental tube for a moment with my two fingers; the cloud, which was of exceeding lightness, immediately showed responsive convection. It was wonderfully sensitive to the slightest local change of temperature. Once started in this simple way the motions of the cloud went on, and ended in the development of a splendid cloud-figure.

The influence of a minute residue is also strikingly illustrated by the following fact. 15 inches of mixed hydrochloric acid and air, exposed for fifteen minutes to a powerful beam, showed not the slightest trace of action. A small pellet of bibulous paper, not half the size of a pea, was moistened with the iodide of allyl. I held the pellet between my fingers till it became almost dry, then inserted it into a connecting piece, and sent a little air over it into the experimental tube. On stopping the flow of air a blue cloud began to form immediately, and in five minutes the rich colour had extended quite through the experimental tube. This cloud was 3 feet long and discharged a good body of light, but for some minutes it could be completely quenched by the Nicol. At the end of fifteen minutes a white massive cloud filled the experimental tube. Considering the amount of matter concerned in the production of this nebula, it seemed like the development of a cloud-world out of nothing.

But this is not all. The pellet of bibulous paper was removed, and the experimental tube was cleansed by allowing a current of dry air to sweep through it. The current passed through the connecting piece in which the pellet of bibulous paper had rested. The supply of air was at length cut off and the experimental tube exhausted. 15 inches of hydrochloric acid were sent into the tube through the same connecting piece. It is here to be noted, 1°, that the whole quantity of iodide of allyl absorbed by the pellet was exceedingly small; 2°, that I had allowed almost the whole of this small quantity to evaporate; 3°, that the pellet had been cast away and the tube in which it had rested had been rendered the conduit of a strong current of pure air. It was such a residue as could linger after all this in the connecting piece that was carried by the hydrochloric acid into the tube, and there acted on by the light.

A minute after the ignition of the lamp chemical action declared itself by the forma-

tion of a faint cloud. It appeared first at the focus. In a couple of minutes more a faint blue, perfectly polarized along the normal, filled the anterior portion of the tube. The blue also extended from the place of most vigorous action down the tube. An amorphous cylinder of cloud soon filled the first 10 inches of the tube, and pushed gradually down it. It was followed by a complicated cloud-figure, and it again by a vase-shaped nebula fainter than either. At the end of fifteen minutes a body of light, which, considering the amount of matter involved, was simply astonishing, was discharged from the cloud. In one position of the Nicol this cloud was a salmon-colour, in the other a blue-green. When a plate of tourmaline, with its axis parallel to the beam, was passed along in front of the cloud, at some places it showed a particularly vivid blue-green. When placed perpendicular at these places, the field of the crystal was a yellow-green.

I doubt whether spectrum analysis itself is competent to deal with more minute traces of matter than those revealed by actinic decomposition. I think it probable that if the weight of the cloud formed in this experiment were multiplied by trillions it would not amount to a single grain. Bodies placed behind it were seen undimmed through the cloud. The flame of a candle suffered no sensible diminution of its light. It was easy to read through the cloud a page which the cloud itself illuminated. In fact the cloud was a comet's tail on a small scale. It proved that matter of almost infinite tenuity is competent to shed forth light of similar quality, and in far greater quantity than that discharged by the tails of comets*.

These facts render the statement intelligible that even when all reasonable precautions appear to have been taken it is not easy to escape every trace of chemical action on first charging the experimental tube even with an inert substance. In my earlier experiments, when distilled water only was employed to cleanse the tube, the first experiment with air alone was sure to develope an actinic cloud of a beautiful fernleaf pattern. And even now, after the most careful employment of the soft soap and hot water, the first charge of pure nitric, or of pure hydrochloric acid often developes a blue and exceedingly delicate actinic cloud. As regards the optical question, these irregular clouds exhibit some of the finest effects. One additional fact will illustrate a class of disturbances already touched upon. Pure nitric acid had been proved over and over again to exhibit no visible action; but after having demonstrated its inertness, a case occurred where it produced rather dense actinic clouds five times in succession. Indeed there seemed to be no end to their possible development. The only thing to which this change from inertness to activity could be ascribed, was a change in the cerate used to render the ends of the tube air-tight. On examination it was found that the infinitesimal effluvia yielded by the new cerate to the nitric acid was the sole cause of the anomaly. Nitric acid, then, produces no actinic cloud; hydrochloric acid produces no actinic cloud; air passed throughout potash and sulphuric acid produces no actinic cloud, no matter how powerful or how long-continued the action of the light may be.

^{*} The action here referred to has been since developed into a formal hypothesis of cometary phenomena. shall return to the subject.

I hoped during the present year to be able to go over again a vast amount of ground rendered debateable by the discovery of such irregular actions as those here recorded. An accident in the Alps has unfortunately disqualified me from doing this. But as I find that ardent workers have already entered this new field of inquiry, I think it right to lay before the Society this first part of my researches. I omit not only descriptions of the deportment but even the names of the vast majority of the substances with which I have experimented; confining myself to eight or ten closely examined and well-established cases of actinic decomposition, and putting aside for reconsideration all such matters as might vainly occupy the attention of the Society.

§ XII.

The vapours of the substances mentioned in this section were sent into the tube in the manner described in § III. They were mixed, in the proportions stated, with air which had been permitted to bubble through aqueous nitric acid, and the effect produced by exposure to the condensed beam of the electric lamp is in each case described.

Toluol ($C_7 H_8$):—A transparent colourless liquid. Contents of experimental tube.

I. Air with toluol vapour . . . 1 inch; thenAir with aqueous nitric acid . 15 inches.

On igniting the lamp the experimental tube was optically empty.

After thirty seconds the track of the beam through the experimental tube became blue; the blue was about as pure as that of an ordinary cloudless sky in England. After two minutes the colour began to change to a whitish blue.

The light discharged normally by the blue cloud continued to be perfectly polarized for four minutes after the first appearance of the cloud. A rich residual blue was afterwards observed when the Nicol was in its position of minimum transmission.

At the end of ten minutes the residual colour was no longer blue, but bluish white. Hence the light which first exhibited perfect polarization, and which first escaped from perfect polarization, was blue.

At the end of fifteen minutes a very beautiful cloud-figure was developed. The denser portions of the cloud were very luminous.

II. Air and toluol vapour . . . 8 inches; thenAir and aqueous nitric acid . . 8 inches.

The experimental tube was optically empty for a moment at starting, but the action was so rapid that in two or three seconds the tube was filled with a heavy cloud. At the beginning the colour of the cloud was blue. The incipient cloud which whirled round the beam discharged for two or three seconds perfectly polarized light; but the perfection of the polarization ceased almost immediately.

The cloud for a time was divided from beginning to end into two longitudinal lobes, separated from each other by an apparently empty space about a quarter of an inch wide. When the cloud was looked at *obliquely* in a vertical plane, one of these lobes was found to polarize the light positively, the other negatively. In passing from the one to the other the selenite tints were reversed.

The quantity of light scattered by this cloud was very considerable; it brightly illuminated the walls and ceiling of the laboratory. As the cloud became denser, the central empty space, which at first divided it into two lobes, gradually disappeared.

Looked at *normally* the polarization of the one half of this cloud was positive, and that of the other negative. Between the two a neutral point existed. The oblique polarization of the dense cloud was strong.

III. Air and aqueous nitric acid . . 1 inch; then Air and toluol vapour 15 inches.

The action here was not so prompt as in the last case, nor was the cloud generated so dense. The cloud-particles, moreover, were coarser, and showed iridescent colours. Still the chemical action of the light was distinct and copious.

Looked at normally, a portion of this light was salmon-coloured. The selenite bands appeared to be of this colour, and its complementary greenish tint.

BISULPHIDE OF CARBON (C S_2):—A transparent colourless liquid.

Contents of experimental tube.

Air and bisulphide-of-carbon vapour . 1 inch; then
 Air and aqueous nitric acid 15 inches.

On starting the experimental tube was optically empty; but in a minute afterwards the track of the beam became blue, which was particularly deep and rich in the middle portion of the beam.

The blue light discharged normally was perfectly polarized, but the least deviation of the line of vision from the normal caused a portion of the light to pass through the Nicol.

The growth of this cloud and the gradual brightening and subsequent whitening of the blue were very instructive.

The light discharged normally remained perfectly polarized for seven minutes after the first appearance of the blue colour. A faint but rich residual blue was seen for some time afterwards.

The selenite colours were exceedingly vivid with this cloud. When, moreover, a plate of tourmaline was placed with the crystallographic axes parallel to the beam it was black; placed at right angles to the beam, a large portion of the light of the cloud was transmitted.

After ten minutes' exposure the cloud itself still showed a distinct trace of blue. The residual blue was then particularly rich and pure. After fifteen minutes the selenite colours were still vivid, though the cloud had then become greyish white.

Air and bisulphide-of-carbon vapour . . . 8 inches; then
 Air and aqueous nitric acid 8 inches.

When the lamp was ignited the experimental tube was found optically empty; but the chemical action commenced three-quarters of a minute afterwards, the convergent beam assuming the appearance of a fine blue spear. The action was more energetic than in the last case, though the battery was sensibly sinking in power.

The light discharged normally remained perfectly polarized for two minutes after its first appearance. The selenite colours were rich and vivid, and the tourmaline in its two characteristic positions showed the same striking contrast observed in the last experiment.

In five or six minutes the entire tube was filled with cloud, the residual blue being then perfectly gorgeous.

III. Air and aqueous nitric acid 1 inch; thenAir and bisulphide-of-carbon vapour . 15 inches.

The tube was optically empty when the lamp was ignited. The chemical action soon commenced, a series of layers of blue cloud stretching through the entire tube. The action was less energetic than in the former cases, this being due in part to the sinking of the battery. The light discharged normally remained perfectly polarized for ten minutes.

Cyanide of Ethyl $(C_2 H_5 Cn)$:—A transparent colourless liquid.

Contents of experimental tube.

I. Air and cyanide-of-ethyl vapour . . . 1 inch; then Air and aqueous nitric acid 15 inches.

The tube was optically empty when the lamp was ignited. In a minute and a half the track of the beam became distinctly blue. The blue light was at first perfectly polarized.

The beam was crossed by a series of disks, which were denser and more whitish than the general mass of the cloud. The extinction of these disks by the Nicol was curious and interesting.

The growth of the particles in this case was so slow that the light emitted normally continued perfectly polarized for thirteen minutes after the first appearance of the cloud. A faint residual blue was afterwards developed.

 Air and cyanide-of-ethyl vapour . . 8 inches; then Air and aqueous nitric acid . . . 8 inches.

The experimental tube was optically empty for two seconds after the starting of the lamp; a fine blue colour was then observed upon the upper boundary of the convergent beam. The light emitted normally did not remain perfectly polarized for more than half a minute. In two minutes the tube was filled with cloud, the anterior portion being

white, and the posterior portion bluish. The posterior portion could be utterly extinguished by the Nicol long after the anterior portion had began to show a residual blue. Passing with the Nicol from the densest to the least dense portion of the cloud, the residual colour changed from a bright blue through a gorgeous Alpine skyblue to absolute extinction.

Looked at obliquely in a vertical plane, the two semicylinders into which the cloud was longitudinally divided were found in opposite states of polarization.

This was a truly splendid action. The chemical effect was exceedingly vigorous, and the cloud-form fine.

III. Air and aqueous nitric acid 1 inch; then Air and cyanide-of-ethyl vapour 15 inches.

On starting the light the experimental tube was found optically empty. In a quarter of a minute, however, the track of the beam, which previously had been invisible, was coloured blue. The chemical action appeared to exert itself with almost the same intensity throughout the entire length of the experimental tube.

For a brief interval the whole of the light emitted normally was polarized. Then for a time about three-fourths of the length of the cloud could be quenched by the Nicol, the remainder showing a fine residual blue. This sank from a brilliant azure at the densest portion of the cloud through deep rich blue to entire extinction.

The selenite bands were exceedingly vivid long after this cloud had ceased to be blue. An immense quantity of polarized light was discharged normally, even after the cloud had become white. Placed between the cloud and the eye, a plate of tourmaline with its axis parallel to the beam was practically black, while when placed across the beam a bright green light was copiously transmitted.

In one position of the Nicol this cloud was yellow, in the rectangular position it was blue. Here also the chemical action was very vigorous, and the cloud-form very fine.

Benzol (C_6H_6):—A transparent colourless liquid. Contents of experimental tube.

I. Air and benzol vapour 1 inch; then Air and aqueous nitric acid . . . 15 inches.

Nitric acid is known to form with benzol nitro-benzol, a liquid possessing a high boiling-point. But though the mixed vapours were allowed to remain together for ten minutes before starting the lamp, when the beam passed through the experimental tube it was optically empty.

Chemical action commenced a quarter of a minute after the ignition of the lamp; a very delicate blue light was then discharged from the beam, the centre of which was particularly bright and transparent. The light emitted normally remained perfectly polarized for one minute.

I looked through the Nicol towards the cloud. For a minute it was absolutely extinguished. Continuing to look in the same direction the residual colour appeared, and passed from a rich deep violet to a hard whitish blue. It was exceedingly interesting to watch the growth and change of the residual colour. At a certain period of its existence it rivalled the richest blue of the spectrum.

In two or three minutes the anterior portion of the tube was filled by a thick cloud generated by the beam. The cloud rapidly diminished in density as the more distant end of the tube was approached. It was composed of two longitudinal lobes, which, looked at obliquely in a vertical plane, discharged light polarized in planes at right angles to each other.

When the cloud was looked at normally, the line of vision being horizontal, on one side of the centre the polarization was positive, on the other side negative. Moved to and fro across the neutral section, the sudden expansion and contraction of the selenite bands was very curious.

After twenty minutes' action the neutral section was abolished, and the normal polarization (now feeble) became the same throughout the entire length of the cloud.

II. Air and benzol vapour 8 inches; thenAir and aqueous nitric acid . . . 8 inches.

On starting the light the tube was not optically empty, but crowded with particles. Through them the beam appeared to force its way like a spear, bringing down upon itself a finer cloud, which soon swathed and masked the coarser spherules.

This experiment was many times repeated, but it was found impossible to bring the benzol and nitric acid together in the quantities here employed without the formation of a crowd (cloud would hardly be the word) of coarse particles. Chemical action had manifestly set in without the intervention of the light.

The chemical action without light appearing to depend on the quantity of benzol vapour and nitric acid present, I varied that quartity. When 2 inches of each were admitted into the experimental tube, no particles were seen when the lamp was ignited. A quarter of a minute after the starting of the lamp the track of the beam became blue. This light remained perfectly polarized for a minute. In three minutes a dense cloud had filled the tube. In the two rectangular positions of the Nicol the cloud exhibited a salmon-colour and a hard bluish greenish white.

When the quantities of the two vapours were 4 inches each, there were no particles in the tube when the lamp was ignited. No doubt the substances were ready to attack each other, and in less than a quarter of a minute the beam precipitated the attack. The action was exceedingly vigorous. For a moment, and only for a moment, the polarization was perfect. In less than a minute the rapid thickening of the cloud and the quick growth of its particles abolished almost all traces of polarization.

When the quantities were 5 inches to 5, particles were found in the experimental tube on starting; and the same occurred with all greater quantities. When, for example, the

quantities were 6 inches to 6, 10 inches to 10, or 15 inches to 15, there were invariably particles. In some of the experiments it seemed as if the chemical attractions were satisfied before the light started, the subsequent action being very feeble. In other instances this did not seem to be the case; for though the particles existed, the spaces between them became immediately filled by a fine dense cloud when the beam passed among them. In some instances the precipitation was exceedingly sudden and copions. Mr. Cottrell, who has assisted me with zealous intelligence in these experiments, thus describes one result. "Some coarse particles were in the tube on commencing, and these, when the light was started, remained perfectly tranquil for a moment; but after an instant's pause the beam appeared to pierce like a ploughshare the cloud it had formed, throwing right and left of it heaps of precipitated particles. This cloud filled the tube almost instantaneously."

To give the benzol and nitric acid more time to act upon each other, on Tuesday evening, the 16th of February, 2 inches of each were admitted into the experimental tube, and allowed to remain there through the night. Sixteen hours subsequently the beam was permitted to act upon the mixture. The tube which contained it was to all appearance absolutely empty; no particles whatever had formed during the night. In a quarter of a minute after starting the lamp chemical action began, and in five minutes the beam had filled the tube with a dense cloud.

The deportment of benzol may be thus summed up:-

Benzel	. N	itric ac	id.				
2 inches.		2 inches.		No parti			
4	"	4	29	No particles; very strong actinic action.			
5	,,	5	,,	Particles	; dense actinic cl	oud precipi	tated among them.
6	,,	6	"	٠,,	sometimes	"	"
10	**	10	,,	>>	sometimes	77	73
15	,,	15	"	"	sometimes	5 *	,,
1	,,	15	"	No parti	cles; strong actin	ic action.	
15	"	1	"	Particles			

IODIDE OF ALLYL (C₃ H₅ I):—A transparent yellowish liquid.

Contents of experimental tube.

I. Air and iodide-of-allyl vapour . . . 1 inch; then Air and nitric acid 15 inches.

The beam traversed the tube for an instant as if the space within it were a vacuum, but in the fraction of a second a brilliant shower of particles fell upon the beam. The cloud became coarse immediately. The action occurred in the anterior part of the tube, the most distant part being apparently free from action. This is quite different from the deportment of iodide of allyl and hydrochloric acid. On reversing the tube another cloud, of finer texture than the first, was*precipitated. The cloud assumed

beautiful and curious forms. The inner portions of its two longitudinal lobes were shaped like screws; they moreover rotated like screws, moving as if they were pushed mechanically into the mass of cloud in front of them. The whole effect was very fine, and the action extremely vigorous. As might be expected from the density of the cloud, the normal polarization was almost nil.

II. Air and iodide-of-allyl vapour . . 8 inches; then Air and nitric acid 8 inches.

The tube was optically empty at first, but the action, though not so brilliant as in the last case, was very prompt and energetic. A very coarse cloud was rapidly formed throughout the entire tube, upon the bottom of which the particles appeared to fall in showers.

The cloud having apparently ceased to thicken, the lamp was suspended. On its accidental reignition a fine cloud, dense and luminous, was suddenly precipitated among the coarser particles. On suspending the lamp the finer cloud vanished, but the coarser particles remained. On reignition the fine white cloud was precipitated as before, entirely masking the coarser one by its superior density and closeness of texture. This action was repeated several times in succession.

Allowing the parallel beam from the lamp to act for a time upon the cloud, on changing it to a convergent one the superior intensity of the light immediately caused a fine, dense, and luminous precipitation. By rendering the beam alternately parallel and convergent, this action could be reproduced several times in succession.

III. Air and nitric acid 1 inch; then Air and iodide-of-allyl vapour . . 15 inches.

Immediately after the starting of the lamp the action commenced, and spread through the entire tube in less than two minutes. The falling of the particles in vertical showers occurred here also.

After it had acted for a time the lamp was extinguished, and the tube was permitted to remain quiescent for an hour. On reigniting the lamp the tube appeared to be quite empty. The cloud that had previously filled it had entirely disappeared. Half a minute's action of the beam brought down upon it copious precipitation, a revival of the action occurring afterwards throughout the entire tube.

IODIDE OF ISOPROPYL (CH(CH₃)₂ I). Contents of experimental tube.

I. Air and iodide-of-isopropyl vapour . . 1 inch; then Air and nitric acid 15 inches.

After a moment of apparent emptiness a very splendid action set in. A cloud of exceeding brightness suddenly filled the space occupied by the convergent beam. The

light scattered by this anterior cloud was very powerful. At the distant end of the tube the action was feeble. I reversed the tube; but the precipitation here was by no means so prompt and copious as at the other end, into which the vapour had been evidently swept by the air and nitric acid.

The lamp was suspended for about five minutes; on reigniting it a coarse cloud was found within the tube; but instantly through this coarseness a finer cloud of exquisite colour, luminousness, and texture was shed. A violent whirling motion was set up at the same time. The longitudinal lobes in this case were very curiously found.

II. Air and iodide-of-isopropyl vapour . . . 8 inches; thenAir and nitric acid 8 inches.

Tube optically empty, but in the fraction of a minute a shower of very coarse particles had fallen upon the beam. They augmented up to a certain point and then appeared to diminish. The reversal of the tube caused fresh precipitation. The rendering of the beam more convergent also caused augmented precipitation, but nothing so fine as in the last experiment. The action, indeed, was altogether inferior to the last in point both of beauty and of energy.

I suspended the lamp for a few minutes; on restarting it the tube appeared empty, but in a moment a cloud much finer than that at first obtained was precipitated on the beam. Curious masses of particles gushed at irregular intervals upon the beam. On reversing the tube the action was decidedly finer than at first.

Thus, suspending the lamp after it has been acting for a time, the vapour during the period of suspension undergoes a change which enables it to fall as a finer and more visibly copious cloud than at the beginning of the action.

III. Air and nitric acid 1 inch; then Air and iodide-of-isopropyl vapour . . . 15 inches.

Action commenced immediately, and in less than a minute the beam had filled the tube with an unbroken cloud. The beam was rendered parallel, and the action continued for eight minutes. The end nearest the light became rapidly empty, while in the distant half of the tube the particles fell in heavy showers. The whole tube subsequently became almost empty; the disappearance of the dense cloud first generated was very striking. It would appear as if after the first sudden precipitation evaporation had set in and restored the particles to the gaseous condition.

NITRITE OF AMYL (C₅ H₁₁ ONO):—A transparent yellowish liquid.

Contents of experimental tube.

I. Air and nitrite-of-amyl vapour 1 inch; then Air and nitric acid 15 inches.

The tube was optically empty at starting; action commenced in half a minute, the

cloud particles formed being very coarse. In four minutes the anterior two-thirds of the tube were filled with a very coarse cloud, the remaining third with a finer one. The whole rotated round a longitudinal axis, and the finer portion was rolled into a curious spiral form, and was tinged throughout with iridescent colours. The normal polarization was almost nil, except in the finer part of the cloud, which was slightly blue.

II. Air and nitrite-of-amyl vapour . . . 8 inches; then Air and nitric acid 8 inches.

The tube was optically empty for an instant only, a dense precipitation occurring immediately upon the concentrated beam. The distant part of the tube, however, was but scantily filled, showing the sifting action of the nitrite vapour. On reversing the tube copious precipitation occurred. After ten minutes' exposure the particles tended to settle at the bottom of the tube.

III. Air and nitric acid 1 inch; then
Air and nitrite-of-amyl vapour 15 inches,

The tube was optically empty only for an instant; as in the last experiment, a dense cloud was immediately precipitated on the cone of rays. Here also the distant end of the tube was protected by the vapour in front.

In all these cases the action was distinctly less energetic than when the nitrite vapour mixed with air alone was exposed to the light; and very much less energetic than when hydrochloric acid was mixed with the vapour.

NITRITE OF BUTYL (C4 H9 ONO):-A transparent yellowish liquid.

This substance gives no sensible action with nitric acid; but with hydrochloric, as already mentioned, the action is vigorous and brilliant. Here are a few of the results.

Contents of experimental tube.

Air and nitrite-of-butyl vapour.
 1 inch; then
 Air and hydrochloric acid
 15 inches.

The action began a quarter of a minute after starting, a very white and brilliant cloud forming upon the concentrated beam and quickly spreading throughout the tube.

II. Air and nitrite-of-butyl vapour 8 inches; then Air and hydrochloric acid 8 inches.

The action began about half a minute after starting, a cloud of comparatively fine particles being precipitated in the cone of rays, while the distant part of the tube was filled with coarse particles. The cloud was coarser, and the action less energetic than in the last experiment.

III. Air and hydrochloric acid. 1 inch; then Air and nitrite-of-butyl vapour 15 inches. After four minutes action a number of coarse particles had formed in the tube together with a faint scroll of cloud. The action was very feeble. For vigorous action with the nitrite of butyl the proportion of the acid to the vapour must be large.

The hydrochloric acid here employed was that ordinarily used by chemists in quantitative analysis. The same series of experiments was executed with *commercial* hydrochloric acid; the action in this case was distinctly more energetic than when the pure acid was employed.

Hydride of Caproyl $(C_6 H_{11} O, H)$:—A transparent colourless liquid. Contents of experimental tube.

Air and hydride of caproyl 8 inches. Air and nitric acid 8 inches.

The tube was optically empty at starting. In three quarters of a minute a blue cloud had formed throughout the tube. It remained perfectly polarized for three minutes; then became gradually white, discharging imperfectly polarized light. At the end of ten minutes a dense white cloud filled the tube.

§ XIII.

I thought it worth while, for the sake of bringing out the influence of vibrating period, to contrast the action of powerful foci of dark rays with the feeble foci produced by the convergence of the more refrangible rays of the spectrum. It is known that the dark calorific rays pass freely through a solution of iodine in bisulphide of carbon; such a solution was employed to hold back the luminous part of the electric beam. A cell containing ammonia sulphate of copper was employed to hold back the rays of low refrangibility and allow those of high refrangibility transmission. The destructive action of the ammonia sulphate in the calorific rays is well known. Its depth in the present case was such as to quench completely the red, orange, and yellow of the spectrum, but it allowed transmission to the violet and blue, and a small portion of the green. The vapours employed were mixed with the various acids mentioned.

Nitrite of amyl 8 inches. Pure hydrochloric acid . . 8 inches.

The convergent beam of the lamp was sent through the cell containing the solution of iodine, and was permitted to act upon the mixed acid and vapour for ten minutes. The ammonia-sulphate cell was then introduced and the opaque solution removed. For an instant afterwards the tube was optically empty. Then a dense cloud was precipitated, which advanced like a moving share towards the most distant end of the tube. Within half a minute after the withdrawal of the opaque solution the tube was filled with cloud, which augmented in density for five minutes, when the experiment ceased. A repetition of the experiment yielded the same result.

Iodide of allyl 8 inches. Nitric acid 8 inches.

Looked at for an instant after the vapour and acid had entered, with the white light of the electric lamp, the experimental tube was seen to be optically empty. The opaque solution was immediately introduced, and the vapour was subjected to the action of the dark rays for ten minutes.

The opaque solution was then removed for an instant, and the tube was seen to be optically empty. The strong calorific rays had produced no action.

The cell containing the blue liquid was then introduced; in less than half a minute the action became visible, and augmented rapidly. In three minutes a cloud stretched quite through the tube from end to end. The scattering of the blue light by the coarse particles of this cloud produced a very pretty effect.

Benzol 4 inches. Nitric acid 4 inches.

Looked at for an instant after the admission of the vapour and acid the tube was optically empty. The opaque solution was introduced, and the invisible rays permitted to act for ten minutes. The solution was then removed, and the tube was examined for a moment with white light. It was optically empty. The blue liquid being interposed, visible action commenced $2\frac{1}{2}$ minutes afterwards*, and in ten minutes a cloud was formed throughout the tube. A repetition of this experiment confirmed the inaction of the calorific rays, and showed the action of the blue rays to be visible a minute after the introduction of the ammonia-sulphate cell.

Toluol 8 inches. Nitric acid 8 inches.

Looked at for an instant after the admission of the vapour and acid, the tube was found optically empty. Ten minutes' action of the calorific rays produced no effect. The blue liquid was then interposed, and in two minutes a cloud was visible upon the feeble blue beam. At the end of ten minutes this cloud stretched throughout the tube.

Iodide of β propyl . . . 8 inches. Nitric acid 8 inches.

The tube was optically empty at the commencement. At the end of ten minutes' exposure to the calorific rays the tube was also empty. The blue cell was introduced, but in two minutes after its introduction, no cloud appearing, the cell was removed for an instant. The action had begun, though the coarse particles of the actinic cloud were too sparsely distributed to be seen by the weak blue light. The experiment was repeated. As before, ten minutes' action of the calorific rays proved quite ineffectual. In one minute after the introduction of the blue liquid, no cloud being visible in the tube, the cell was removed. A crowd of particles were then seen upon the cone of light.

^{*} No doubt it had previously commenced, but it was invisible in the feeble light.

The cell was again introduced, and after three minutes again withdrawn. The particles had increased considerably. Seven minutes' action rendered them sufficiently numerous to be visible in the blue light. After ten minutes the coarse cloud was very plainly seen. The action was continued with white light after the removal of the blue liquid; it was scarcely more energetic than that produced by the blue rays.

Nitrite of butyl 1 inch. Hydrochloric acid 15 inches.

Examined for a moment by white light the tube was optically empty. After ten minutes' exposure to the dark rays the tube was again examined by the white beam; it was still optically empty. The blue liquid was then introduced, and in a $\frac{1}{4}$ of a minute a long streak of cloud had formed. In $2\frac{1}{2}$ minutes a dense cloud had formed throughout the entire tube. An exceedingly delicate blue light, and at some parts a deep violet, was scattered by this cloud. After five minutes' exposure to the blue rays an intensely white cloud had formed, which completely filled the tube. The action here was very fine.

Bisulphide of carbon. . . 8 inches. Nitric acid 8 inches.

The tube was optically empty when the opaque solution was introduced; but after ten minutes' exposure to the calorific rays a faint blue tinge was observed, when the opaque solution was removed*. The experiment was abandoned, and the mixed vapour and acid were again introduced. At the beginning the tube was optically empty; after ten minutes' exposure to the calorific rays it was also empty. In two minutes after the introduction of the blue cell, a cloud became visible; it quickly increased, and after four minutes extended throughout the tube. After ten minutes' action a dense whitish-blue cloud filled the entire tube. The experiment was repeated twice with the bisulphide, with substantially the same result.

These experiments are quite conclusive as to the inability of the calorific rays to produce actinic clouds; they are the product of the more refrangible rays of the spectrum.

* It is sometimes difficult to get the bisulphide into the tube without this blue tinge. It is certainly due to some impurity. With care it can be caused to disappear wholly.

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XX. Tables of the Numerical Values of the Sine-integral, Cosine-integral, and Exponential-integral. By J. W. L. Glaisher, Trinity College, Cambridge. Communicated by Professor Cayley, F.R.S.

Received February 10,-Read March 10, 1870.

It has for a long time been evident that the extension of the Integral Calculus would require the introduction of new functions; or, rather, that certain functions should be regarded as primary, so that forms reduced to dependence on them might be considered known.

Thus, in the evaluation of Definite Integrals, the three transcendents

$$\int_0^x \frac{\sin u}{u} du, \quad \int_x^x \frac{\cos u}{u} du, \quad \int_x^{-x} \frac{e^{-u}}{u} du,$$

called the sinc-integral, the cosine-integral, and the exponential-integral, have become recognized elementary functions, and great use has been made of them to express the values of more complicated forms. They were introduced by Schlömich to evaluate the integral $\int_0^x \frac{a \sin x\theta}{a^2-\theta^2} d\theta$, and several allied forms*, and denoted by him Si x, Ci x, Ei x. Arnot also employed them in a similar manner about the same time.

The first two functions had, however, previously received some attention from BRET-SCHNEIDER, who appears to have been led to their consideration by their analogy with the logarithm-integral, as in a paper in the 17th volume of CRELLE'S Journal he announces his intention of not only tabulating this integral, but also of forming "tabulas aliarum quarundam functionum, cum logarithmo integrali arcte junctarum." The Tables are published in the third volume of GRUNERT'S 'Archiv der Mathematik und Physik' for 1843, and contain ten positive and negative values of the logarithm-integral, and ten values of the sine-integral and cosine-integral, besides tables of several other functions.

The exponential-integral was introduced in its present form by Schlömich, though for all real values it is the same as the logarithm-integral li $x = \int_0^x \frac{du}{\log u}$, the relation between the two forms being

 $\lim e^x = \operatorname{Ei} x$.

The logarithm-integral appears to have been first discussed by Mascheroni, and in 1809 a work was published by Soldner at Munich concerning its theory, which also contained a Table of its values. This Table is reprinted in De Morgan's 'Differential' and Integral Calculus,' p. 662.

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^{*} Crelle's Journal, vol. xxxiii. p. 316.

[†] Referred to by Breischneider, Crelle's Journal, vol. xvii. p. 257.

The sine-integral and cosine-integral occur in a Memoir by BIDONE in the Turin Transactions for 1812, where they are expanded in series, the same as those marked (1) on the next page:

From the moment of its introduction the logarithm-integral excited considerable interest, but it is only in the last twenty-five years that the other functions have become of importance. A complete list of all the memoirs in which these functions are considered is given by Professor Bierens de Haan, on page 83 of his 'Supplément aux tables d'intégrales définies,' published in the tenth volume of the Transactions of the Royal Academy of Amsterdam; and in the second volume reference is made to several other works in a memoir by the same author.

Since 1845 the three integrals have been practically regarded as primary functions in the integral calculus; and how well suited they are to this purpose is evident from the success which has attended the labours of those analysts who have sought to reduce more complicated integrals to dependence on them.

Professor De Haan, in the fifth volume of the Amsterdam Transactions, has evaluated a very large number of integrals by means of them; and in the great Tables* of the same author there are given nearly 450 functions dependent for their evaluation on that of these integrals. Considering therefore their extreme importance as a means of extending the Integral Calculus, and the probable value of many of the integrals evaluated in physical inquiries, it seemed very desirable that they should be systematically tabulated, so as to be known, not only by convention, but in reality; and on this subject Professor De Haan has strongly expressed his opinion of the value of such Tables.

Bretschneider, in the memoir previously cited, has computed Si x, Ci x, Ei x, Ei (-x) for the values 1, 2, 3 . . . 10 of the argument to 20 places of decimals (except the values for x=1, which are extended to 35 places). This Table is reprinted by Schlömich at the end of his 'Analytische Studien,' and a portion of it is quoted by the same author at the end of a paper in the thirty-third volume of Crelle's Journal.

The Tables given in the present paper are the following:-

Tables I., II., III., IV.—Si x, Ci x, Ei x, Ei (-x) from x=0 to x=1 at intervals of 01 to 18 places of decimals, with differences to the third order.

Tables V., VI., VII., VIII.—Si x, Ci x, Ei x, Ei (-x) from x=1 to x=5 at intervals of 0·1 to 11 places of decimals, with differences to the third order.

Table IX.—Si x, Ci x, Ei x, and Ei(-x) from x=5 to x=15 at intervals of unity, to 11 places of decimals.

Table X.—Si x and Ci x from x=20 to x=100 at intervals of 5, from x=100 to x=200 at intervals of 10, from x=200 to x=1000 at intervals of 100, and for several higher values of x to 7 places of decimals.

Table XI.—Maxima and minima values of Six to 7 places of decimals.

Table XII.—Maxima and minima values of Ci x to 7 places of decimals.

In the course of the work Bretschneider's values have been verified as far as they

^{*} Nouvelles tables d'intégrales définies, Leyden, 1867.

coincided with those in the present paper, though from the great care he used, and the mode of verification he adopted, there was little doubt of their accuracy. One error was detected in Ei(-5), which should be $00114\ldots$ instead of $00144\ldots$. This has doubtless arisen in the final copying or printing.

Expressed in series the functions are:

Si
$$x = x - \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{x^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{5} \cdot \frac{x^5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} - \frac{1}{7} \cdot \frac{x^7}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot ... 7} + \dots$$

Ci $x = \gamma + \frac{1}{4} \log_e(x^4) - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{x^3}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{x^4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} - \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{x^5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot ... 6} + \dots$

Ei $x = \gamma + \frac{1}{4} \log_e(x^4) + x + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{x^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{x^4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \dots$

(1)

γ being Euler's constant 0.5772156 . . .

From these expressions it is evident that $\operatorname{Si} x$, $\operatorname{Ci} x$, and $\operatorname{Ei} x$ are connected by the relation

$$\operatorname{Ei}(x\sqrt{-1}) = \operatorname{Ci} x + \sqrt{-1} \operatorname{Si} x.$$

The logarithms are written as above to indicate that they are real when x is negative, or of the form $a\sqrt{-1}$. The logarithm-integral differs in this respect only from the exponential-integral, for

li
$$e^s = \gamma + \frac{1}{2} \log_e(x^2) + x + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{x^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{x^4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \dots$$

The series in (1) are clearly always convergent, however large x may be. The following series are easily obtained by integration by parts:

Si
$$x = \frac{\pi}{2} - \cos x \left\{ \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1 \cdot 2}{x^3} + \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4}{x^5} - \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot ...6}{x^7} + \dots \right\}$$

$$-\sin x \left\{ \frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot ...3}{x^4} + \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot ...5}{x^6} - \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot ...7}{x^8} + \dots \right\}$$
Ci $x = \sin x \left\{ \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1 \cdot ...2}{x^3} + \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot ...3}{x^5} - \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot ...6}{x^7} + \dots \right\}$

$$-\cos x \left\{ \frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot ...3}{x^4} + \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot ...3 \cdot 4}{x^6} - \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot ...7}{x^8} + \dots \right\}$$
Ei $x = e^{\pi} \left\{ \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1 \cdot ...2}{x^3} + \frac{1 \cdot ...2 \cdot ...3}{x^4} + \frac{1 \cdot ...2 \cdot ...3}{x^5} + \dots \right\}$

These series are ultimately divergent, though for values of x greater than unity they begin by converging, and when x=17, seven places of decimals are obtainable from them for Si x and Ci x.

Formulæ (1) were used for values where the argument was less than 16, formulæ (2) where it was greater.

Tables I. to IX. were calculated in the following manner. The denominators of the terms in the series (1) were first computed, the first 20 figures of which, as far as the 71st power, and the logarithms of their reciprocals, are given in the following Table.

Table of the Constants.

r.	First twenty figures of $x\Gamma(x+1)$.	$-\log\Big\{x\Gamma(x+1)\Big\}.$	r. 1	First twenty 6	gure	s of a	$r\Gamma(x)$	+ 1).	− log { x	T(x-	+1)
2	4	1 -397 940 008 7 3	7	509 258 864	375	374	766	71	45 -293		
3	18	2 -744 727 494 9 3	8	198 748 594	637	308	422	46	47 -701	695	933
4	96	2 -017 728 767 0 3	19	795 517 401	166	700	290	98	48 -099	350	316
5	600	3 -221 848 749 6	0	326 366 113	299	159	093	73	50 .486	294	940
6	432 0	4 864 516 253 2 4	11	137 155 359	113	971	609	14	52 862	787	218
7	352 80	5 452 471 423 5 4	2	590 102 569	456	209	557	38	53 -229	072	494
8	322 560	6 491 389 489 6 4	3	259 785 631	172	507	493	24	55 ·585	384	873
9	326 592 0	7 485 994 457 7 4	14	116 963 949	290	691	745	79	57 931	947	976
0	362 880 00	8 -440 236 967 1 4	15	538 299 993	894	660	875	52	58 .268	975	625
1	439 084 800	9 -357 451 596 8	6	253 120 619	351	356	091	69	60 ·596		
2	574 801 920 0	10 -240 481 789 9	7	121 552 923	510	249	044	90	62 .915	234	591
3	809 512 704 00	11 -091 776 331 3	18	595 867 948	441	731	488	20	63 -224	849	974
4	122 049 607 680 0			298 058 113					65 -525		
5	196 151 155 200 00	14 -707 409 129 8 5		152 070 466					67 .817	955	123
6	334 764 638 208 000	15 ·475 260 423 6 5	1	791 070 564	176	564	962	91	68 -101	784	775
7	604 668 627 763 200 0			419 422 510					70 -377	348	264
8	115 242 726 703 104 000			226 568 814					72 -644		
9	231 125 690 776 780 800 0	19 ·636 151 777 8 5	4	124 655 596	563	190	345	45	74 904	288	218
0	486 580 401 635 328 000 00			698 302 184					75 -155		
1	107 290 978 560 589 824 00			398 159 209					77 399		
2	247 280 160 111 073 689 60	23 .606 810 726 7	7	231 003 441	177	800	135	50	79 -636	381	550
3	594 596 384 994 354 462 72		- 1	136 332 557					81 -865		
4	148 907 616 415 977 465 44			818 230 309					82 -087		
5	387 780 251 083 274 649 60	27 -411 414 312 5	30	499 259 226	764	483	408	65	84 -301	673	900
6	104 855 779 892 917 465 25			309 623 930					86 509		
7	293 999 475 161 295 508 34			195 113 834					88 .709		
В	853 687 364 912 798 809 40	31 068 701 146 4	53	124 904 323	870	479	724	03	90 -903	422	527
9	256 411 097 818 451 356 68			812 076 365					91 .090		
0	795 758 579 436 573 175 90			536 097 288					93 270		
L	254 907 998 279 515 607 34	36 -593 616 537 4	56	359 267 659	791	112	422	24	95 -444	581	874
2	842 018 678 187 819 296 53			244 356 443					97 -611		
3	286 549 481 420 792 254 35		- 1	168 642 416					99 .773		
4	100 379 151 673 465 407 88	41 998 356 479 0	39	118 074 492	175	417	504	84	101 927	843	913
5	361 660 178 823 515 072 53	42 -441 699 307 3	70	838 500 016	897	892	425	72	102 -076	496	924
6	133 917 597 644 364 438 28	44 .873 162 350 1	$n \perp$	603 839 797	883	100	945	44	104 -219		

The powers of all numbers from 1 to 100 were then formed up to the 20th, and in some extreme cases up to the 40th, the numbers under each power being entered in Tables*. The divisions were then made, and the values of the following four series,

$$x + \frac{1}{5} \cdot \frac{x^5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} + \frac{1}{9} \cdot \frac{x^9}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot ...9} + \dots$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{x^6}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} + \frac{1}{10} \cdot \frac{x^{10}}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot ...10} + \dots$$

^{*} The powers of numbers from 1 to 100 as far as the tenth are given in Hurron's 'Powers of Numbers,' published by the Commissioners of Longitude in 1781. In this Table, which was only used as a check, the fifth power of 81 and the seventh power of 98 were found to be inaccurate.

$$\frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{x^8}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{7} \cdot \frac{x^7}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots 7} + \frac{1}{11} \cdot \frac{x^{11}}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots 11} + \dots$$

$$\gamma + \log x + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{x^4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \frac{1}{8} \cdot \frac{x^8}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots 8} + \dots$$

were formed, which, when suitably combined by additions and subtractions, gave the values of the functions.

In Tables I. to IV. the highest power of x included was x^{20} .

In Table IX. x^{6} was required for the value 15. In the intermediate Tables x^{20} was the highest power included.

The values of the functions when the argument was above 16 were calculated from formulæ (2), the log sines and log cosines being taken from Taylor's logarithms.

As the formulæ (2) are divergent, to remove every shade of doubt that might attach to their use, the functions for x=20 were computed from both formulæ, and the agreement was perfect to the eighth place, which was as far as the second formulæ could give correct results for this value of x.

The calculation of the values from x=10 to x=20 was extremely difficult and laborious, owing to the great number of terms and high powers necessary to be included. The term involving x^{76} was the first one rejected in the calculation for x=20; and to show how extremely unmanageable the formulæ (1) had become, it may be stated that this value, calculated as before described, required the formation of about 22,000 figures exclusive of verifications. Great confidence may, however, be placed in the truth of these results (from x=10 to x=20), as they were also calculated entirely independently by deducing each term from its predecessor, and in addition the value of Ei (-x), which, on account of its extreme smallness, admitted of being obtained from formulæ (2), served as a rigorous verification of the whole process, excepting the final additions and subtractions.

The functions for x=20 were obtained correct to the 12th place, the values being

Having obtained the values for x=20, it was a matter of comparative ease to give the values of the functions for x=2 to a great many places; they are to 43 places as follows:

Si2 =
$$+1.605$$
 412 976 802 694 848 576 720 148 198 588 940 848 5834
Ci2 = $+0.422$ 980 828 774 864 995 698 565 153 198 255 894 135 7378
Ei2 = $+4.954$ 234 356 001 890 163 379 505 130 227 035 275 518 0536
Ei(-2)= -0.048 900 510 708 061 119 567 239 835 228 049 522 314 4922

agreeing with Bretschneider's values to the first 20 places, which is as far as he has computed them. The value of γ was taken from a paper by Mr. Shanks in No. 114 of the 'Proceedings of the Royal Society.' Bretschneider has calculated the functions for x=1 to 35 places.

The maxima and minima values of the sine-integral correspond to multiples of π . Those above 4π were calculated by formulæ (2), the others were deduced by TAYLOE'S theorem from other values, Si π from Si 3 and Si 3·1; Si 2π from Si 6; Si 3π from Si 9; and Si 4π from Si 13.

The cosine-integral has its maxima and minima values for odd multiples of $\frac{1}{2}\pi$. Those above $\frac{9}{2}\pi$ were calculated from formulæ (2), the others were deduced from previously calculated values, Ci $\frac{1}{2}\pi$ from Ci 1·6; Ci $\frac{3}{2}\pi$ from Ci 4·7; Ci $\frac{5}{2}\pi$ from Ci 8; Ci $\frac{7}{2}\pi$ from Ci 11; and Ci $\frac{9}{2}\pi$ from Ci 14. The difference formulæ in the form best adapted for logarithmic computation are:

Si
$$(x+h)$$
—Si x

$$= \frac{h \sin x}{x} \left\{ 1 - \frac{h}{2x} + h^2 \left(\frac{1}{3} - \frac{h}{4x} \right) \left(\frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} \right) + h^4 \left(\frac{1}{5} - \frac{h}{6x} \right) \left(\frac{1}{x^4} - \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot x^2} + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} \right) + h^6 \left(\frac{1}{7} - \frac{h}{8x} \right) \left(\frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot x^4} + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot x^2} - \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} \right) + \dots$$

$$+ \frac{h^2 \cos x}{x} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} - \frac{h}{3x} + h^2 \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{h}{5x} \right) \left(\frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} \right) + h^4 \left(\frac{1}{6} - \frac{h}{7x} \right) \left(\frac{1}{x^4} - \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot x^2} + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} \right) + \dots$$

$$+ \dots$$

$$+ h^2 \left(\frac{1}{3} - \frac{h}{4x} \right) \left(\frac{1}{x^3} - \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} \right) + h^4 \left(\frac{1}{5} - \frac{h}{6x} \right) \left(\frac{1}{x^4} - \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot x^2} + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} \right) + \dots$$

$$- \frac{h^2 \sin x}{x} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} - \frac{h}{3x} + h^2 \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{h}{5x} \right) \left(\frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} \right) + \dots$$

$$+ h^2 \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{h}{5x} \right) \left(\frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} \right) + \dots$$

Si w was calculated both from Si 3 and Si 3.1, thus verifying the formula as well as the value of Si \u03c4.

In all cases the values calculated from the difference formulæ on the preceding page were verified to as many places as could be obtained from formulæ (2).

In Table XI. Si $(x\pi)$ $-\frac{1}{2}\pi$ is tabulated in preference to Si $x\pi$, as the changes in the function are thus rendered more apparent.

The curves y = Si x, y = Ci x, y = Ei x were easily drawn from the values in the Tables. It is thus seen how rapidly the two former curves become flattened, and it is worth notice that the radius of curvature at any maximum or minimum point is equal to the abscissa of that point.

The point where the exponential-integral curve cuts the axis of x has the abscissa 0.37249680..., in other words, this is the only real root of the equation Ei x=0.

It is my intention to determine the points where the sine-integral and cosine-integral curves cut the lines with which they ultimately coincide, and with this view I have already determined the ordinates corresponding to points midway between the maxima and minima values as data for a first approximation. will amount to finding the roots of the equations Si $x = \frac{1}{2}\pi$; Ci x = 0.

In Tables I. to IV., the work has been performed correct to the 20th place, and the last two figures have been finally rejected; in Tables V. to IX., the twelfth place has been corrected throughout the work, and the last figure only rejected. In the other Tables two figures have been generally rejected.

In Tables I. to VIII., all the results were verified as far as 7-figure logarithms were available, and in some cases 10-figure logarithms have been used. A very

from 10 to 20 were verified.

The Exponential-integral Curve, y = Ei x.

large portion of the work was done in duplicate, and every figure has been carefully examined either by my father or myself; in all cases great pains were taken to ensure accuracy, by independent methods as by logarithms, or in the way by which the values

It may be mentioned also that differences as far as the ninth order have been taken of the numbers in Tables I. to IV., thus affording a rigid test of the accuracy of more than the first ten, and in the sine-integral of the whole eighteen figures.

TABLE I.

Values of the Sine-integral from 0 to 1 at intervals of 01.

æ.			Si a						Δ						Δ:	2					Δ	3		
·00		999	944	444	611	111	9	999	611	116	277	742	000	00	666	636	667	214	 ·0 0	0 000	333	268	336	226
02	,					853	9	998	944	479	610	527				905							343	
03 04	·029 ·039	998 996	500 444	040 615	499 106	380 467	9	997 996	944	574 461	607 260	087 278		01 01	333 666	113 241	346 706	809 367			333 383	128 028	359 390	558 507
05	.049	993	056	076	366	745	9	994	945	219	553	911		01	999	270	096	874			332	908	443	356
06 07	. 059	988	001	295	920	656 693	9	992	945	949	457	037 806		02	332	178 947	540	231			332	768	$\frac{526}{650}$	673
08	.079	971	561	016	294	499	9	987	948	823	849	903		02	997	555	717	354			332	428	826	108
09	-089	959	509	840	144	402	9	984	951	268	132	548				984					332	229	066 385	489
10 11	109	914 926	461 082	108 391	276 866	950 036			621 959			$086 \\ 135$				213		951 810			331 331	769	799	909
12	-119	904	041	461	845	172	9	973	964	846	983	325		04	325	992	795	719			331	510	325	749
13 14	·129											606 138				503 734							981 788	
15	-149	812	626	514	082	241	9	959	992	616	962	760		05	319	665	891	717					766	
16 17	·159	772	619	131	045	001	9	954	672	951	071	043 922				278 552							938 329	
18	-179								042							467							965	
19 20	·189	619	356	874	344	884	9	936	731	651	888	938 676		06	640	004 143	892	261			329	138	871 078	820
-																					-		613	
21 22	219	409	302	676	463	498 093 593	9	915	824	638	390	595 501		07	626	864 148	455	784			327	826	510	079
23												717				974							799	
24 25	-249	133	570	319	757	310 164	9	891	963	190	203	854 176		08	608	178	282				326	337	516 696	837
26						340						572				515							376	
27 28	·268	908 783	888 309	521 017	880 822	913 044	9	874 865	420 160	495 177	941 585	131 323						808 529			325 324	247 673	593 388	721 495
29	288	648	469	195	407	367						794		09	910	239	338	024			324	079	801	666
30 31						161 931	9					770 079		10	234	319	139	690					875 654	
32						010	9	824	872	267	142	798		10	880	620	669	282 289	1		322		182	
33						808	9	813	991	646	473	509		11	202	803	851	312			321		506	
34 35	·337	626	002 790	988	115 737	317 514	9	802 791	788 264	542 526	$\frac{622}{264}$	197 768		11	524 845	316 139	337 031	312 429 566			320		674 735	
36	.357	418	055	515	002	282	9	779	419	387	233	201											740	
37 38	·367 ·376	197 964	474 729	902 036	235 701	484 829	9 9	767 754	254 769	134 495	466 959	345 342		12 12	484 803	638 277	507 247	857 003 630			318 317	638 872	740 790	627
39	-386	719	498	532	661	171	9					712	i					639			317		942	
40	•396	461	464	751	372	883 956	9	728	845	068	674	673 523		13	438	237	980	550 851			316	284	255 784	300
42						480	1					673						328	Ì				589	
43	.425	607	368	959	198	152	9	687	582	324	437	344		14	384	604	609	409 484	1		313	760	729 265	075
.44						496	1					935												
·45 ·46	•454	626	648	357	952	431 882	9	643	488	106	885	450 214		15	323	232	865	237 959			311	069	261 780	913
•47						095						255						871					888	
·48 ·49						350 734						384 955		16	253	622	186	429 629			308	213	651 136	681
	+0.493							580	332	510	650	327	000	016	561	835	323	309		00 00	0 307	224	414	136

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{TABLE I. (continued)}. \\ \textbf{V}_{\bullet} lues of the Sine-integral from 0 to 1 at intervals of 01. \\ \end{tabular}$

æ.			Si	r.		-			Δ						Δ^2	-					Δ	3		
50 51 52	+0·493 502 (512)	687	750	553	717	016	+-009 9 9	563	770	675	650 327 589	017		16 1	61 8 69 6 175 5	359	7:37	445	000	000	306	217	414 553 627	991
53 54 55	521 531 540	328	149	182	931	742	9	512	245	868	298 378 750	747		17	180 784 087	619	628	403			303	085	709 871 190	429
-56 -57 -58	550 559 569	811	229	840	311	348	9	457	983	821	250 559 125	955		18	389 690 990	632	434	255			299	799	743 608 864	379
59 60 61	588	128	809	608	080	067	9	401	013	657	083 176 678	364	1	19	586	618	497	702 997 832			296	351	591 871 788	835
·62 ·63 ·64	616	272	794	372	243	331	9	341	365	930	308 150 565	015	1	20	472	104	584	519 596 043			292	747	426 869 205	447
-65 -66 -67		235	183	101	070	765 142 026	9	279	072	608		377 884 448	1	21	346	624	181	493 436 417			288	988	521 907 3 453	981
68 69 70	672	008	072	063	973	474 505 311	9	214	167	052	181 637 843	031 806 732	1	22	209	717	794	225 074 785			283	080	250 391 3 970	1 71
·71 ·72 ·73	699	583	658	988	112	043 991 990	9	146	683	994	501	948 999 908		23	060	933	237	948 091 827			28	02	1 08 1 82 6 28	0 73
74 ·75 ·76	726	954	247	150	086	898 979 054	9	076	659	514	863	081 075 226		23	899	825	919	005 850 091			27	6 81	4 57 6 78 3 02	9 24
77 78 79	754	112	249	400	127	280 415 462	9	004	131	020	498	135 047 099	1	24	725	959	120	988 918 633			27	2 46	3 39 7 98 6 90	3 68
·80 ·81 ·82	781	050	192	116	257	560 026 435	8	929	137	220	240	466 409 223		25	538	904	293	057 186 112			26	7 97	0 27 8 18 0 74	92
83 84 85	807	760	719	083	917	658 769 740	8	851	718	100	258	971 126		26	338	241	27:	140 2 845 9 140			26	3 35	8 05 0 24 7 41	6 29
86 87 88	825 834	437 236	817 595	043	16: 629	866 852 517	1 8	771	914	898	534	986 665 555		27	123	558	603	2 320 3 110 4 694	-		25	8 58	9 67 7 13 9 90	1 58
·89	860	470	710	743	292	3 072 2 933 3 050	1 8	689	770	078	3 553	861 117 688		27	894	45:	761	3 743 429 1 434			25	3 69	8 11 1 87 1 29	3 00
9:	886	456	08:	927	79	739 1993 3299	1 8	608	327	302	2 231	254 306 649		28	650	533	416	948 657 725			24	8 66	6 49 7 58 4 70	9 00
·9;	912	188	863	56	64	948 9 873 7 033	1 :	3 513	631	40:	097	925 161 364		29	391	413	67:	764 797 2 209	0	00 00		3 51	7 96 17 47 13 37	8 41
-91 -91	8 929 9 937	193	3 736 3 34:	95	7 170	0 397 1 552						155 463	000	029	876	704	529	692					1	

Table II. Values of the Cosine-integral from θ to 1 at intervals of :01.

æ.		Ci x				:		Δ						Δ	2					Δ	3		
·00 ·01 ·02		520 338	982 859	392 961	072 346	+·693 ·405		182 114				287 -117			243 198			+·169 ·053		043 523			
03 04 05	2-929 567 2-642 060 2-419 141	133	300	949	350		918	626 626	749	041	107	-010	871	963	931 066 767	435	849	-012	651	537 131 606	298	823	265
86 97 08	2-237 094 2 083 269 1-950 112	121	954	310	313	133	156	794 569 292	153	578	120	1 415	798	276	761 788 586	690	458	-003	325	948 858 207	202	350	686
09 10 11	1·832 754 1·727 868 1·633 082	386	657	296	639	-104 094 -086	785	873 663 011	063	258	226	.008	348	651	715 458 252	844	724	-001	339	559 162 964	206	136	986
12 13 14	1 546 645 1 467 227 1 393 793	189	637	919	148	073	433	522 998 142	090	795	218	005	161	გ 55	260 726 243	411	091	000	660	668 786 489	482	471	572
15 16 17	1·325 524 1·261 758 1·201 957	976	062	394	196		801	073 493 646	550	980	272	003	515	817	569 099 091	741	740	-000	375	732 059 311	007	749	541
18 19 20	1·145 671 1·092 526 1·042 205	977	700	938	060	·053 050 ·047	321	858 382 750	028	156	085	-002	552	631	331 122 428	557	128	1 '000	233	845 032 948	694	222	349
21 22 23	0 994 436 0 948 987 0 905 656	692	289	918	843	-045 -043 -041	331	152 502 014	993	376	342	1001	941	488	483 638 994	138	663	; •000	lå4	160 586 599	643	260	153
24 25 26	0 864 266 0 824 663 0 786 710	062	580	945	653	-039 -037 -036	952	609	738	956	024	1001	529	543	621 134 042	862	531	-600	107	959 767 427	092	340	306
27 28 29	0.750 287 0.715 286 0.681 610	093	676	324	886	035 -033 -052	675		144	793	927	001	238	721	416 584 262	124	733	1 000	078	626 112 679	321	492	203
30 31 32	0-649 172 0-617 896 0-587 709	321	673	725	080		166	611 681 915	842	771	991	001	025	766	454 709 279	723	119	000	058	162 424 351	430	296	270
33 34 35	0.558 548 0.530 355 0.503 075	151	811	282	195		279	572 582 443	524	220	260	-000	865	1,00	329 545 205	813	500	' -000	044	851 844 265	640	358	635
36 37 38	0 476 661 0 451 066 0 426 251	976	168	703	278	021	815	149 120 150	845	355	689	-000	740	969	627 908 975	450	995	4000	035	058 176 580	932	744	562
39 40 11	0 402 177 0 378 809 0 356 114	346	425	244	332	022	695	357 115 165	057	783	646	-000	642	979	903 105 486	600	535	-000	028	233 108 179	619	007	410
42 43 44	0 334 062 0 312 624 0 291 776	739	949	687	587	-020	848	295 604 336	093	517	774	-000	564	268	372 080 021	404	413	.000	022	423 822 358	058	752	324
45 46 47	0 271 491 0 251 748 0 232 526	909	851	595	180	019	222	889 802 734	758	024	955	-000	500	068	233 280 454	051	873	1 000	018	018 789 660	825	156	349
48 49 50	0 195 561	916	592	519	586	-017	777	837	785	906	685		446	997	237 962 674	575	458		015	620 661 775	287	855	561

Table II. (continued).

Values of the Cosine-integral from 0 to 1 at intervals of ·01.

1								Ī									~			Π					
x.				Ci x	•			!		Δ						Δ^2						Δ	3		
50 51 52	-16	ю.	453	238	983	281	901 674 344		330 899 482	503	148	611	331	000	431 416 402	336 561 604	674 129 931	719 730 125	896 832 180	+-(000 014 14 14	775 956 197	544 198 155	989 605 297	064 652 124
-53 -54 -55	-11	0	990	456	728	034	845 527 265		690 690 314	337 929 014	087 311 516	755 927 617	318 262 796		389 376 365	407 914 075	775 795 978	828 309 368	056 466 191	1	1; 1	838 838 230	816	941	275
-56 -57 -58	•02 •06 •04	79 : 35 :	985 036 441	512 574 481	899 361 487	489 239 190	469 864 749	14	595	092	874	049	605 115 371		353 343 333	845 182 047	664 096 027	200 139 907	490 744 755	ì	1 1 0	9 663 9 641	568 068 652	060 231 475	746 990 284
59 60 61	-00 -00 	36 22 98	189 270 675	570 706 248	709 959 584	281 279 710	379 763 618	13	595	458	374	569	616 145 590								0 0 0				
62 63 64	•01	17	581	742	372	554 029 431	972 478 858	12	678	626	227	402	506 380 639		297 289 281	131 165 555	263 573 636	072 917 608	126 741 000		0	7 4965 7 609 7 275	689 937 706	154 309 327	386 740 822
65 66 67	-0.	54	757	734	269	916 793 359	497 136 596	12 11 11	107 833 56 6	905 625 306	016 086 557	876 596 308	639 461 496		274 267 260	279 318 652	930 529 963	280 287 467	178 964 874	1	0	6 961 6 661 6 386	400 565 870	992 820 986	214 091 369
68 69 70	-01	84	463	319	307	538	093 715 833	11	051	387	501	359	623 118 992		$\frac{248}{242}$	141 265	992 854	636 787	505 126 194	ı	0	6 124 5 876 5 643	137	848	932
·71 72 73	-1:	21	478	9.32	171	556	825 622 625	16 16	560 324 093	979 355 152	653 761 505	935 836 240	798 002 244		236 231 225	$623 \\ 203 \\ 991$	892 256 963	099 595 542	796 738 8 75	1	6	5 420 5 211 5 013	293	052	883
74 75 76	•1	52	163	600	980	330	868 237 427	06	646	181	718	842	368 190 224						178 966 490			4 823 4 643 4 473	533	610	212 477 008
77 78 79	-1	40	155	333	540	154	651 385 638	00	011	495	135	021	734 253 539	and the second							(4 31: 4 16: 4 02:	8 606 5 486 1 907	159 365 276	767 6 071 5 523
80 81 82	2	06	888	860	952	394	177 073 549	4)8	415	724	929	838	896 776 760		194 190 186	520 635 882	$070 \\ 641 \\ 024$	088 838 245	120 016 200	i I	(3 88 3 75 3 62	3 617	592	816
83 84 85	2	31	367	853	433	999	609 169 350	0;	854	954	319	343	560 181 855	-	183 179 176	252 742 345	944 497 119	412 167 561	379 326 634	į	(3 519 3 39 3 28	377	605	691
86 87 88	-2	54	596	915	278	122	205 425 966	1 07	325	811	135	204	221 540 209		173 169 166	055 868 780	567 8 3 425	409 6~3 596	680 332 523	i	(3 186 3 086 2 995	465	086	809
·89 ·90 91	-2	76	067	530	467	772	175 860 252	- 06	825	376	051	694	686 392 748		163 160 158	785 580 061	761 722 369	239 563 788	294 594 267		•	2 815	352	775	700 327 950
·92 ·93 ·94	-2	96	064	135	807	940	049 580 794	1 06	351	109	987	544	531 214 162						317 051 034			2 58 2 51	998	123 958	266 017 817
-95 -96 -97	3 -3	08 14 20	613 662 562	690 054 849	787 684 485	274 434 920	956 084 995	0.	900	794	801	486	128 911 795		147 145 142	569 125 748	095 989 921	672 669 004	217 116 714	+)))0 000	2 44 2 37 2 31	3 106 7 066 3 745	664 664 667	3 102 4 402 7 896
·98 ·99		31	931	438	188	551	790 871	+ 00	612 6 472	919 484	890 712	813 416	081 263	_ 000	140	435	178	396	818						

. Table III.

Values of the Exponential-integral from 0 to 1 at intervals of 01.

x.			Ei x						Δ						Δ	1					Δ	3		
·00 ·01 ·02 ·03	-∞ -4·017 3·314 2·899	706	894	410	153	902	+·703 ·415 ·297	591	170	469	874	458	287 -117 -064	732	024	102	421	201	+·169 ·053 ·023		856	728	419	607
·04 ·05 ·06	2 601 2-367 2-175	884	598	579	374	524	·233 ·192 ·164	601		027	750	888	-040 -028 -020	118	831	019	014	771	-007	651 551 871	939	780	169	192
·07 ·08 ·09	2-010 1-866 1-738	884	102	772	996	980	-143 -128 -115	220	352	426	045	787	-015 -012 -009	369	416	048	371	269		326 372 751	512	157	804	231
10 11 12	1-622 1-516 1-419	958	751	482	169	195	-105 -097 -090	603	082	357	102	306	-008 -006 -005	914	483	179	809	362	-001 -001 -000	034	300	000	726	812 105 144
13 14 15	1·328 1·243 1·164	840	653	949	564	258	-079	754		651	170	574	·003	399	057	253	610	435	-000 -000	540	825	623	894	734
16 17 18	1-088 1-017 0-949	234	290	132	989	106	-071 -068 -065	086		920	805	187	·003 ·003 ·002	034	76%	136	869	428	-000 -000	317	648	878	781	511
19 20 21	0.884 0.821 0.761	760	587	902	400	316	-062 -039 -057	888	964	036	019	897	-002 -002 -002	212	564	767	237	832	-000 -000 -000	202	287	468	584	321
22 23 24	0·704 0·648 0·594	529	102	627	469	801	055 053 052	832	344	564	629	415	-001 -001 -001	833 678	777 851	405 163	499 702	139 760	-000 -000		759	551	372	245
25 26 27	0·542 0·491 0·442	931	882	873	317	589	-050 -049 -047	190	570	448	661	319	-001 -001	312	702	824	814	327	000	108 096 086	769	714	787	934
28 29 30	0 394 0-348 0-302	863 201	444 510	800 286	809 988	278 679	-046 -045	661 532	934 971	513 021	820 162	599 795	-001 -001 -000	128 050	963 507	492 660	657 092	804 825	.000	078 071 064	024	075	856	557
31 32 33	0-258 0-214 0-172	186 683	075 096	904 127	755 922	915 214		502 588	979 003	776 992	833 479	701 517	+000 +000 +000	914 856	975 205	784 480	354 551	183 408	-600	058 053 049	698	673	691	462
34 35 36	0·130 0 089 0·049	363 434	293 001	623 918	514 446	587 422	-040 -940	929 175	291	705 987	068 597	165 867	-000 -000	708	114	556	817	378	-000	045 041 038	615	045	387	977
37 38 39	-0 009	790 011	148 221	500 419	068 283	066 021	-038 -038	801 173	369 279 717	919 574	351 959	087 182	-000 -000	628 592	090 561	344 949	391 876	905 593	-000	035 032 030	932	581	843	860
40 41 42	0·104 0·141 0·178	765 786	218 306	619 876	324 374	793 650	-037 -036	021 492	088 046 467	257 278	049 460	856 711	-000 -000	529 500	041 578	978 651	589 189	145 708	-000	028 026 024	463 534	327 974	399 755	437
·43 ·44 ·45	0·214 0·249	269 787	820 244	782 732	106 943	363 100	·035	517 068	423	950 613	836 621	737 966	-000	449 426	263 083	337 007	214 722		-000	023 021 020	180 718	329 318	492 413	372 462
·46 ·47 ·48	0:319 0:353	497 735	482 195	952 869	464 055	632 260	-034 -033	237 853	712	916 606	590 990	628 412	-600 -900	383 364	984 832	909 924	600 922		-000 -000	019 018 016	151 023	984 747	677 915	409 507
-49	1	077	818	958	113	276	-033	142	085	905	060	304	ì	329	823	963	673	799		016	027	673	424	323

Table III. (continued).

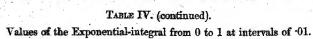
Values of the Exponential-integral from 0 to 1 at intervals of 01.

x.		Ei x.					Δ						Δ^2						*		
·50 ·51 ·52	+0·454 219 0·487 032 0·519 530	166 80	4 560	085	32	812 498 199	465	651	137	028	000	298	652	290 874 279	169	903	+ 000 015	143 325 568	594	318	221
·53 ·54 ·55		930 72	9 779	683	31	915 644 356	726	332	406	688		257	893	164 620 595	287	756 461 770	1 15	865 213 606	025	238	691
·56 ·57 ·58	0.646 677 0.677 818 0.708 725	641 89	1 376	055	30	141 907 684	077	729	635			223	033	199	609	344 517 925	10	041 514 022	455	906	593
·59 ·60 ·61	0·739 409 0·769 881 0·800 150	289 93	7 359	437	30	269	029	892	690	671 120 518		192	932	376	554	551 602 512	0:	563 133 731	877	673	091
·62 ·63 ·64	0·830 226 0·860 118 0·889 835	716 36	3 439	081	29	S92 717 550	232	114	747			166	712	347	490	802 363 748	0:	354 3000 7668	829	518	616
·65 ·66 ·67	0.919 386 0.948 778 0.978 019	276 49	14 728	220	29	240	765	400	768	094 489 342		143	686	368	474	605 146 787	0	7 356 7 062 3 786	806	232	359
-68 -69 -70	1.007 116 1.036 076 1.064 907	576 39	7 843	607	. 28		618	226	446	555 934 717	1	129 123 117	837 311 031	243 442 303	605 559 204	621 217 332	0	5 525 5 280 6 048	139	354	884
71 ·72 ·73	1·093 614 1·122 204 1·150 684	776 88	88 861	642	28		292	489	172	385 848 358		105	153	611	860	537 489 324	. 0	5 829 5 622 5 426	480	423	165
74 75 76	1·179 058 1·207 332 1·235 513	816 09	11 221	883	28	180	503	434	251	034 976 220		088	862	645	674	059 756 316	, 6	5 241 5 056 4 900	343	644	
·77 ·78 ·79	1·263 604 1·291 612 1·319 541	804 71	10 597	983	27	007 928 854	948	413	876			074	153	326	025	113 627 165	1 4	1 74: 1 59: 1 45!	362	042	462
·80 ·81 ·82	1·347 396 1·375 181 1·402 901	783 33	6 193	938	27	720	126	741	287	999 379 244		060	791	436	039	620 135 106	0	4 316 4 186 4 067	032	229	030
·83 ·84 ·85	1·430 561 1·458 163 1·485 714	978 28	34 167	699	27	550	197	941	086	138 122 458		048	583	147	381	017 664 881	. 0	3 951 3 841 3 737	799	010	783
·86 ·87 ·88	1·513 215 1·540 672 1·568 088	664 46	34 291	855	27	456 415 378	869	180	250	125		037	366	895	967	452 759 270	0:	637 3 542 3 451	379	728	489
·89 ·90 ·91	1·595 467 1·622 811 1·650 126	035 92 713 69	28 824 96 867	346 441	27	344 314 287	305	108	539			027	007	100	784	485 619 442	0;	365 283 204	259	946	176
-92 -93 -94	1-677 413 1-704 676 1-731 919	316 81 890 98	13 162 30 078	043 593	27	263 243 225	055	075	277	148		017	389	091 262 949	942	402 577 443	0:	129 058 990	313	112	134
•95 •96 •97	1.759 145 1.786 356 1.813 556	946 73	30 194	439	27	211 199 191	993	941	341	348		008	416	921 108 597	855	619	+ 000 00	924 862 802	510	933	738
-98 -99 1-00	1.840 748 1.867 934 +1.895 117	542 73	8 585	363	+ 027	186 183	024 273	234 617	563 351	848 392	000	002	750	617	212	456					

Table IV.

Values of the Exponential-integral from 0 to 1 at intervals of 01.

x,	Ei (-x).	Δ	Δ2	Δ^3
-90 -91 -92 -93		+-683 221 793 228 404 301 395 589 059 288 428 847 277 855 034 996 000 764		+·169 898 709 647 547 372 053 244 189 811 732 969 023 716 204 331 581 697
·04	2-681 263 689 025 279 920	213 365 200 515 305 550	040 773 630 149 113 517	012 650 797 669 904 970
·05	2-467 898 488 509 974 370	172 591 570 366 192 034	028 122 832 479 208 546	007 551 272 263 282 429
·06	2-295 306 918 143 782 336	144 468 737 886 983 487	020 571 560 215 926 118	004 870 615 097 947 363
·07	2-150 838 180 256 798 849	123 897 177 671 057 370	015 700 945 117 978 754	003 325 524 178 172 337
·08	2-026 941 002 585 741 479	108 196 232 553 078 615	012 375 420 939 806 418	002 371 873 680 151 542
·09	1-918 744 770 032 662 864	095 820 811 613 272 198	010 003 547 259 654 875	001 751 224 882 428 031
·10	1-822 923 958 419 390 666	085 817 264 353 617 322	008 252 322 377 226 844	001 329 827 631 422 625
·11	1-737 106 694 065 773 344	077 564 941 976 390 478	006 922 494 745 804 219	001 033 630 201 123 876
·12	1-659 541 752 089 382 866	070 642 447 230 586 259	005 888 864 544 680 343	000 819 333 511 388 831
·13	1.588 899 304 858 796 606	064 753 582 685 905 916	005 069 531 033 291 512	000 660 451 211 459 020
·14	1.524 145 722 172 890 691	059 684 051 652 614 404	004 409 079 821 832 492	000 540 154 140 309 362
·15	1.464 461 670 520 276 287	055 274 971 830 781 912	003 868 925 681 523 131	000 447 396 657 181 013
·16	1·409 186 698 689 494 375	051 406 046 149 258 781	003 421 529 024 392 117	000 374 722 902 274 108
·17	1·357 780 652 540 235 594	047 984 517 124 866 664	003 046 806 122 118 010	000 316 975 348 096 544
·18	1·809 796 135 415 368 931	044 937 711 002 748 654	002 729 830 774 021 466	000 270 508 474 295 132
·19	1·264 858 424 412 620 276	042 207 880 228 727 188	002 459 322 299 726 333	000 232 695 624 800 250
·20	1·222 650 544 183 893 088	039 748 557 929 000 855	002 226 626 674 926 083	000 201 611 526 366 829
·21	1·182 901 986 254 892 234	037 521 931 254 074 772	002 025 015 148 559 254	000 175 823 065 846 310
·22	1·145 380 055 000 817 462	035 496 916 105 515 517	001 849 192 082 712 944	000 154 248 488 671 547
·23	1·109 883 138 895 301 945	033 647 724 022 802 573	001 694 943 594 041 397	000 136 060 831 638 280
·24	1·076 235 414 872 499 371	031 952 780 428 761 176	001 558 882 762 403 116	000 120 620 545 191 144
·25	1·044 282 634 443 738 195	030 393 897 666 358 060	001 438 262 217 211 973	000 107 427 739 511 901
·26	1·013 888 736 777 380 135	028 955 635 449 146 087	001 330 834 477 700 072	000 096 087 849 766 893
·27	0·984 933 101 328 234 048	027 624 800 971 446 015	001 234 746 627 933 179	000 086 286 621 848 827
·28	0-957 308 300 356 788 033	026 390 054 343 512 836	001 148 460 006 084 352	000 077 771 665 379 399
·29	0-930 918 246 013 275 197	025 241 594 337 428 484	001 070 688 340 704 953	000 070 338 695 754 303
·30	0-905 676 651 675 846 712	024 170 905 996 723 531	001 000 349 644 950 650	000 063 821 165 525 578
31	0-881 505 745 679 123 181	023 170 556 351 772 882	000 936 528 479 425 072	000 058 082 373 764 756
32	0-858 335 189 327 350 299	022 234 027 872 347 810	000 878 446 105 660 316	000 053 009 406 452 021
33	0-836 101 161 455 002 489	021 355 581 766 687 494	000 825 436 699 208 295	000 048 508 443 333 252
34	0·814 745 579 688 314 995	020 530 145 067 479 200	000 776 928 255 875 042 000 732 427 161 809 613 000 691 505 645 355 959	000 044 501 094 065 429
35	0·794 215 434 620 835 795	019 753 216 811 604 158		000 040 921 516 453 654
36	0·774 462 217 809 231 637	019 020 789 649 794 545		000 037 714 133 836 006
37	0.755 441 428 159 437 092	018 329 284 004 438 586	000 653 791 511 519 953	000 034 831 815 018 716
38	0.737 112 144 154 998 507	017 675 492 492 918 632	000 618 959 696 501 237	000 032 234 413 913 604
39	0.719 436 651 662 079 874	017 056 532 796 417 396	000 586 725 282 587 633	000 029 887 590 827 474
·40	0·702 380 118 865 662 479	016 469 807 513 829 763	000 556 837 691 760 159	000 027 761 855 728 595
·41	0·685 910 311 351 832 716	015 912 969 822 069 604	000 529 075 836 031 564	000 025 831 787 541 285
·42	0·669 997 341 529 763 112	015 383 893 986 038 040	000 503 244 048 490 279	000 024 075 393 850 669
·43	0-654 613 447 543 725 072	014 880 649 937 547 761	000 479 168 654 639 610	000 022 473 583 231 700
·44	0-639 732 797 606 177 312	014 401 481 282 908 150	000 456 695 071 407 910	000 021 009 728 394 867
·45	0-625 331 316 323 269 161	013 944 786 211 500 240	000 435 685 343 013 043	000 019 669 302 934 150
·46	0 611 386 530 111 768 921	013 509 100 868 487 197	000 416 016 040 078 893	000 018 439 578 013 741
·47	0 597 877 429 243 281 723	013 093 084 828 408 305	000 397 576 462 065 152	000 017 309 368 091 453
·48	0 584 781 344 414 873 419	012 695 508 366 343 153	000 380 267 093 973 699	000 016 268 816 936 490
·49 ·50	0.572 088 836 048 530 266	012 315 241 272 369 454	000 363 998 277 037 209 000 348 689 060 139 825	000 015 309 216 897 384 + 000 014 422 855 718 195



æ.	,	E	i (-	x).					Δ						Δ^2	٠.					Δ	3		
·50 ·51 ·52	547	822	351	776 780 845	828	586	11	602	553	935	192	245 420 790		334	266		421	630	+.000	13	609	886	718 267 393	210
·53 ·54 ·55	514	003	885	114 702 392	248	987	10	639		309	855	369 198 938		295	681	102 693 084	954	260		11	483	609	806 433 127	366
·56 ·57 ·58	482	960	034	776 245 331	112	807	09	786	600	913	986	014 693 516		263	016	617 539 607	390	177		09	777	931	003 921 923	152
·59 ·60 ·61	463 454	649 379	848 503	956 189	529 402	599	09 09	270 026	345	767 026	127 581	491 545		243 235	954 132	740 710	545 952	946 500 028		08 08	822 389	029 840	593 496 968	446 472
·62	436 427	561 997	853 338	847 402 863	191 018	518 501	08 08	564 345	515 757	445 538	173 685							783 501 992		07 07	605 248	281 869	656 291 255	282 509
-64 -65 -66 -67	411 403	516 586	975 274	919	479 165	534 793	07 07	930 733	701 711	158 379	313 028	741 838 333							es au mager		599 302	007 507	567 980 903	397 815
·68	388 380	309 950	242 010	S04 461	825 250	622 979	07 07	359 181	232 167	343 227	574 741	642 835 000		178 172	$\begin{array}{c} 065 \\ 305 \end{array}$	$\frac{115}{404}$	832 909	807 835	1	05 05	759 511	710 082	922 720	972 336
·70 ·71 ·72	366 359	759 917	981 913	410 910	677 034	144 644	96 96	842 680	067 549	500 419	612 668	501 203									054 814	247 239	215 778 388 624	083 669
·73 ·74 75	346 340	713 340	278 812	903 911	894 230	441 452 008	06	372 225	465 491	992 820	664 481	444 671								04 04	457 278	062 486	384 256	569 939
·76 ·77 ·78	328 322	032 087	346 610	380 292	064 922	336 869 667	05	944 810	736 606	087 533	142 066	467 202 555									948 795	235 450	322 130	887
·79 ·80 ·81	310 305	596 042	578 539	545 199	543 852	005 548	05 05	554 431	039 303	315 696	690 563	977 486 626	1								512 380	084 621	985 118	411 022
·82 ·83 ·84	294 289	299 102	155 918	370 181	866 467	922 746 998	05 95	196 083	237 619	189 679	398 006	176 748 514	i .								136 022	152 437	631 007 229	684 855
85 86 87	279 274	045	070	181	839	484 521 254	04	867 764	769 254	399 448	467 952		ł								810 711	452 608	739 581 716	925 403
·88 ·89	264 260	749	496	385	101	215 478 641	04	565 470	557 181	059 348	101 460	737 838 328		095 092	375 848	710 787	641 182	509	!	02 02	526 440	923 613	475 158 750	907 339
-91 -92 -93	255 251	713 336	757 425	977 416	539 561	312 587 126	04	377 286	332 924	560 387	977 245	725 461 333	1								358 279 203	039 003 318	742 060 082	944 785
·94 ·95 ·96	242	850 737	626 523	776 653	734	793 645 897	01	113 029	103 535	122 309	326 479	148	*	083 081 079	567 437 375	812 002 684	846 116	400 519 919	+.000	02 02	130	810	729	881
·97	230 226	759 891	890 167	414	891	668 358	03 03	868 791	722 341	622 623	888 826	310 121	000	077 075	380 450	999 229	169	188	+.000	001	930	769	893	030
·99 1·00		099 383	825 934	790 395	177 520	237 274	+-003	715	891	394	656	963		•										

MR. J. W. L. GLAISHER'S NUMERICAL VALUES OF THE

Table V.

Values of the Sine-integral from 1 to 5 at intervals of 0.1.

x.	Si x.	Δ	Δ2	Δ3
			003 240 167 97 3 451 170 28 3 642 086 34	.000 911 002 31
1-0	10.046 083 070 37	+.082 602 148 31	003 240 107 97	190 916 06
1.1	1,098 685 218 67	79 361 980 34	3 451 1/0 26	169 839 01
1.2	1:108 047 199 01	75 910 810 06	3 642 086 34	105 005
1.2	1100 02.		0 011 005 25	147 918 33
1.3	1.183 958 009 08	72 268 723 72	2 050 843 68	125 307 21
1.4	1.256 226 732 80	68 456 798 37	4 085 150 88	102 162 36
1.5	1.324 683 531 17	64 496 954 70	3 811 925 35 3 959 843 68 4 085 150 88	
		CO 411 903 91	4 187 313 24 4 265 957 08 4 320 870 44	078 643 74
1.6	1.389 180 485 87	EG 994 400 57	4 265 957 08	054 913 36
1.7	1.449 592 289 68	51 058 533 49	4 320 870 44	031 133 17
1.8	1.505 816 780 26	31 300 000 10	i	00m 4C4 69
	212 75	47 637 663 05	4 352 003 61	000 007 404 85
1.9	1.557 775 515 75	43 285 659 44	4 359 468 45	+.000 019 99% 01
2.0	1.648 698 636 24	47 637 663 05 43 285 659 44 38 926 191 00	4 352 003 61 4 359 468 45 4 343 536 43	000 300 00
2.1	1.040 000 000 %1		4 304 635 61 4 243 346 28 4 160 395 60 4 056 651 14	061 289 33
2.2	1.687 624 827 24	34 589 654 56	4 304 035 01	082 950 68
2.3	1.722 207 481 81	30 278 018 96	4 243 340 20	103 744 46
2.4	1.752 485 500 76	26 034 672 68	4 100 555 00	
~ -		074 077 00	4 056 651 14 3 933 113 23 3 790 907 05	123 537 81
2.5	1.778 520 173 44	21 8/4 2/1 09	3 933 113 23	142 206 29
2.6	1.800 394 450 53	12 994 519 61	3 790 907 05	159 634 84
2.7	1.818 212 076 47	13 884 812 61		. mr. 510 E9
	- coo coc ren 68	10 093 605 56	3 631 272 21 3 455 553 68 3 265 190 33	175 718 33
2.8	1.832 090 389 08	06 462 333 35	3 455 553 68	203 486 76
2·9	1.942 190 191 00	+.003 006 779 67	3 265 190 33	200 100 10
9.0	1 848 802 828		3 061 703 57 2 846 685 25 2 621 785 19	215 018 33
3.1	1.851 659 307 67	000 258 410 65	9 846 685 25	224 900 05
3.2	1.851 400 897 02	03 320 114 22	9 621 785 19	233 086 83
3.3	1.848 080 782 80	06 166 799 47	2 022	
		08 788 584 66 11 177 283 02 13 326 434 77	2 388 698 36	239 546 60 244 260 50 247 222 88
3.4	1.841 913 983 33	11 177 283 02	2 149 151 75	244 200 30
3.5	1.833 125 398 07	13 326 434 77	1 904 891 26	24/ 222 66
3.6	1.821 948 113 03		2-5 660 80	948 441 28
0.5	1.808 621 680 88	15 231 326 03	1 657 668 38 1 409 227 10 1 161 290 96	247 936 14
3.7	1.793 390 354 85	16 888 994 40	1 409 227 10	245 740 62
3.8	1.776 501 360 45	18 298 221 50	1 101 290 90	
3.9		1 150 570 16	0 015 550 34	241 900 13 236 471 94 229 524 51
4.0	1.758 203 138 95	19 459 512 46 20 375 062 80 21 048 713 01	0 673 650 21	236 471 94
4.1	1.738 743 626 49	20 3/3 002 00	0 437 178 27	229 524 51
4.2	1.718 368 563 69	21 010 110 01	1	201 106 0
1	. COM 910 950 69	21 485 891 28	000 207 653 75 +-000 013 483 15 224 881 19	221 100 9
4.3	1.675 022 050 41	21 693 545 03	+.000 013 483 15	900 405 8°
4-4	1.654 140 414 38	21 680 061 88	224 881 19	200 400 0
4.5	1.034 140 111 00		40E 007 NE	188 266 5
4.6	1.632 460 352 50	21 455 180 69	425 287 06 613 553 56 7 +000 788 646 92	+.000 175 093 3
4.7	1.611 005 171 81	21 029 893 64	1.000 788 646 92	,
4.8	1.589 975 278 17	20 416 340 07	4.000 100 010 0%	
		010 COT COT 15		
4.9	1.569 558 938 10	019 02/ 093 1	′	
5.0	+1.549 931 244 94	ł	i	

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{TABLE VI.} \\ \textbf{Values of the Cosine-integral from 1 to 5 at intervals of 0.1.} \end{tabular}$

x.		Ci x.			k	Δ				Δ^2				Δ^3		
1.0	+0.337	403	922	90	+.047	469	454	59	-·011	883	649	05	+.001	577	22k	29
1.1		873					805		10	306	420	83	1		053	
1.2		459					384		09	011	367	05 83 07	î		081	
1.3	445	738	567	53	16	268	017	57	07	918	285	47	0	944	753	11
1.4	462	006	585	10	08	349	732	10	06	973	532	36	0	833	179	87
1.5	470	356	317	19	+.001	376	199	74	1	140				747	270	49
1.6		732			004	764	152	76	05	393	082	00	0		537	
1.7	466	968	364	18 42	10	157	234	76 76 74	04	713	544	98	0		803	
1.8	456	811	129	42	14	870	779	74	04	088	741	17	0	579	421	15
1.9		940					520			509					772	
2.0		980					840			968					955	
2.1	400	511	987	84	25	437	388	79	02	461	592	72	0	476	574	11
2.2	375	074	599	05			981			985					597	
2.3	347	175	017	54	29		000					96			261	
2.4	317	291	017	43	31	420	421	07	01	114	159	23	0	397	002	1 (
2.5		871					580			717					405	
2.6		336					737		000						175	
2.7	220	084	878	03	33	596	488	99	+.000	003	423	อบ	U	0Z4	103	8
2.8		488					065			327					956 952	
2·9 3·0		895 600		01			538 954			627 903					952 757	
3.0	119	029	180	. 01		-	-			903	000	34				
3.1		991			31	734	419	48	01	155					472	
3.2	055	257	411	72	30		127			382					127	
3.3	+0.024	678	284	61	29	196	362	54	01	585	891	95	0	178	775	28
3.4	-0.004						470			764					486	
3.2		128			25	845	803			919					346	
3.6	057	974	351	86	23	926	649	42	02	049	500	35	; U	106	449	88
3.7	081	901	001	28	21	877	149	07		155					899	
3.8	103	778	150	36	19	721	198	85	02						804	
3.9	123	499	349	21	17	482	348	68	02	298	654	73	0	037	274	27
4.0		981					693		. 02	335	929	01	+.000			
4.1		165					764					19	600			
4.2	169	013	156	77	10	496	415	75	02	345	701	46		บะอ	822	48
4.3		509					714		02	319	878	98			001	
4.4		660						30	02	274	877	68			087	
4.5	193	491	122	10	03	555	957	62	02	211	790	ð1		079	989	80
4.6		047			001							65			626	
4.7		391			+.000								000	109	924	67
4.8	197	603	613	31	02	823	807	29	+.001	926	249	08				
4.9		779			+.004	750	056	37								
5.0	-0.190	029	749	66	1				1				ı			

Table VII. Values of the Exponential-integral from 1 to 5 at intervals of 0·1.

x.	Ei x.	Δ	Δ^2	Δ3
				0.0 0.0
	200	+ 272 260 463 21	+.002 453 542 42	+.002 139 046 99
1.0		-274 714 005 63	-004 592 589 41	01 909 399 47
1.1		279 306 595 04	-006 501 988 88	01 767 412 19
1.2	2.44 209 228 519	279 300 333 01		119 05
1	020	285 808 583 92	-008 269 401 06	01 687 113 85
1.3	2.72 139 888 023	294 077 984 98	009 956 514 91	01 652 237 53
1-4	3.00 720 746 415	304 034 499 89	011 608 752 44	01 652 351 36
1.5	3.30 128 544 913	304 001 255 00	ŧ	01 680 669 53
_	- 60 797 004 009	315 643 252 33	-013 261 103 80	01 732 766 26
1.6	3.60 531 994 902	328 904 356 13	014 941 773 33	01 805 795 01
1.7	3.92 096 320 135	·343 846 129 46	·016 674 539 59	01 803 753 01
1.8	4.24 986 755 749	0.10		01 898 001 91
	4.59 371 368 695	·360 520 669 05	-018 480 334 60	02 008 414 85
1.9	4.95 423 435 600	379 001 003 65	-020 378 336 51	02 136 642 15
2.0	5.33 323 535 965	399 379 340 16	-022 386 751 37	02 130 012 10
2-1	5.33 323 333 300	000	222 222 22	02 282 739 71
	5.73 261 469 981	·421 766 091 52	024 523 393 51	02 447 123 76
2.2	6.15 438 079 133		-026 806 133 21	02 630 513 26
2.3	6.60 067 027 635	473 095 618 23	·029 253 256 97	02 000 010 11-
2.4	0.00 00, 02, 500	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	570 570 02	02 833 892 91
	7.07 376 589 458	·502 348 875 21	·031 883 770 23	03 058 491 02
2.5	7.57 611 476 979	·534 232 645 44	·034 717 663 15	03 305 767 14
2.6	8-11 034 741 522	·568 950 308 59	·037 776 154 17	000
2.7	311 001 .		•041 081 921 31	03 577 408 12
2.8	8-67 929 772 381	606 726 462 75	044 659 329 43	
	9.28 602 418 656	647 808 384 06	044 039 329 43	04 201 684 43
2.9	9.93 383 257 062	692 467 713 49	.048 554 059 57	
9.0	330		·052 736 343 80	04 558 870 07
3.1	10.62 630 028 411	·741 002 372 86	057 295 213 87	04 949 546 62
3.2	11.36 730 265 697	·793 738 710 05	062 244 760 49	05 376 652 89
3.3	12.16 104 137 362	-851 033 930 52	1002 244 700 15	1
00			·067 621 413 38	05 843 427 61
3.4	13.01 207 530 414	913 278 691 01	073 464 841 00	00 353 455 51
3.5	13.92 535 399 515	980 900 104 39	079 818 274 86	06 910 586 18
3.6	14.90 625 409 954	1.054 364 945 38	0/3 810 21	
			·086 728 861 04	07 519 181 29
3.7	15.96 061 904 492	1.134 183 220 24	094 248 042 33	08 185 952 52
3.8	17:09 480 226 516	1.220 312 081 20	102 431 974 65	08 910 006 54
3.9	18-31 571 434 644	1.315 160 123 61	1	1
1	1	1	-111 341 981 19	09 703 067 21
4.0	19.63 087 447 006	1.528 934 079 46	·111 341 981 19 ·121 045 048 40	10 569 319 70
4.1	21.04 846 656 832	1.649 979 127 86		11 515 562 27
4.2	22.57 740 064 778	1-049 979 127 80		10 710 041 00
		1.781 593 495 96	·143 129 930 37	12 549 241 83
4.3	24.22 737 977 564		155 679 172 20	19 0/8 919 99
4.4	26.00 897 327 160			14 912 317 43
4.5	27.93 369 669 794	2000 .02 000 0		0 -00 100 00
	100 000 640	2.249 760 286 13	-184 270 005 03	15
4.6			200 530 435 53	
4.7			+ 218 264 022 01	
4.8	34.69 788 987 377	!		
	37.33 245 060 378	+2.852 824 752 09	:	
4.0			ł	!
5.0	1 +40.10 021 000 000	1	i	

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{TABLE VIII.} \\ \begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{Values of the Exponential-integral from 1 to 5 at intervals of 0.1.} \\ \end{tabular}$

x.	Ei (-x).	Δ	Δ^2	Δ^3
				,
1.0	-0.219 383 934 40	+·033 393 029 86 27 582 467 68 22 957 479 00	005 810 562 18	+.001 185 573 49
1.1	185 990 904 54	27 582 467 68	4 624 988 69 3 725 833 72	0 899 154 96
1.2	158 408 436 85	22 957 479 00	3 725 833 72	0 693 918 60
1.3	135 450 957 85	19 231 645 28	3 031 915 12 2 488 481 45	0 543 433 67
1-4	116 219 312 57	16 199 730 16	2 488 481 45	0 430 922 04
1.5	100 019 582 41	13 711 248 71	2 057 559 41	0 345 385 15
1.6	086 308 333 70	11 653 689 30	1 712 174 26	0 279 410 41
1.7	074 654 644 40	09 941 515 04	1 432 763 85	0 227 880 13
1.8	074 654 644 40 064 713 129 36	08 508 751 19	1 712 174 26 1 432 763 85 1 204 883 72	0 187 185 44
1.9	056 204 378 18	07 303 867 47 06 286 169 20	1 017 698 27	0 154 733 53
2.0	048 900 510 71	06 286 169 20	0 862 964 75	0 128 630 17
2.1	042 614 341 51	05 423 204 45	0 862 964 75 0 734 334 57	0 107 470 93
2.2	037 191 137 06	04 688 869 88	0 626 863 64	0 090 200 47
2.3	032 502 267 18	04 062 006 24	* **** ***	0 0=0 0=0 =0
2.4	028 440 260 94	04 688 869 88 04 062 006 24 03 525 343 06	0 336 663 18	0 064 300 91
2.5	I .	1		
2.6	021 850 921 81	02 668 349 98	0 396 346 09 0 341 770 61	0 046 464 45
2.7	024 914 917 88 021 850 221 81 019 181 871 82	02 326 579 38	0 295 306 15	0 039 671 06
2.8	i .	•	0 955 635 00	0 033 959 29
2.9	010 830 292 43	02 001 2/0 22	0 221 675 80	
3.0	013 048 381 09	02 031 273 22 01 775 638 13 01 553 962 33	0 221 675 80 0 192 536 06	0 025 059 75
1				
	011 494 418 76 010 132 992 50	01 361 426 27	0 167 476 31 0 145 880 92	0 021 595 39
3.5				0 018 645 54
3.3	008 939 042 54	01 048 069 04	0 127 235 39	0 016 127 26
3.4	007 890 973 51	60 920 833 65	0 111 108 12	0 013 972 27
3.2	006 970 139 86 006 160 414 33	00 809 725 53 00 712 589 67	0 097 135 85	0 012 124 02
3.6	006 160 414 33	00 712 589 67	0 085 011 83	0 010 535 52
3.7	005 447 824 66	00 627 577 84	0 074 476 31 0 065 308 66	0 009 167 65
3.8	004 820 246 82	00 553 101 53		0 007 987 56
3.9	004 267 145 28	00 487 792 87	0 057 321 10	0 006 967 78
4.0	003 779 352 41	00 430 471 77 00 380 118 45	0 050 353 32	0 006 085 09
4.1	003 348 880 64	00 380 118 45	U U44 208 23	0 000 019 92
4.2	003 779 352 41 003 348 880 64 002 968 762 18	00 335 850 23	0 038 948 31	0 004 655 68
4.3	002 632 911 96	00 296 901 92	0 034 292 63	0 004 078 28
4.4	002 336 010 04	00 296 901 92 00 262 609 29	0 034 292 63 0 030 214 35	0 003 575 74
4.5	002 073 400 76	00 232 394 94	0 026 638 61	0 003 137 83
4.6	001 841 005 82	00 205 756 33 00 182 255 55 00 161 510 57	0 023 500 78	0 002 755 80
4.7	001 635 249 49	00 182 255 55	0 020 744 98	+00000275580
4.8	001 452 993 94	00 161 510 57	000 018 322 80	
4.9	001 291 483 36	+.000 143 187 77		
5.0	-0.001 148 295 59	+ 000 140 10/ //		
J-U	-0 001 140 290 39	i		
	1	1	1	

TABLE IX. Values of Si x, Ci x, Ei x, and Ei(-x) from 6 to 15 at intervals of unity.

r.	Si x.	Ci x.	Ei x.	Ei(-x).		
6 7 8 9	+1.424 687 551 28 1.454 596 614 25 1.574 186 821 71 1.665 040 075 83 1.658 347 594 22 1.578 306 806 95	-0.068 057 243 89 +0.076 695 278 48 +0.122 433 882 53 +0.055 347 531 33 -0.045 456 433 00 -0.089 563 135 49	+ 85-989 762 142 44 191-504 743 335 50 440-379 899 534 84 1037-878 290 717 09 2492-228 976 241 88 6071-406 374 098 61	-0-000 360 082 45 115 481 73 037 665 62 012 447 35 004 156 97 001 400 30		
2 3 4	1.578 300 800 93 1.504 971 241 53 1.499 361 722 87 1.556 211 050 08 +1.618 194 443 70	-0.049 780 006 88 +0.026 764 125 57 +0.069 396 355 93 +0.046 278 677 67	14959-532 666 397 53 37197-688 490 689 03 93192-513 633 965 37 +234955-852 490 768 32	000 475 11 000 162 15 000 055 66 0.000 000 019 13		

 ${\bf T}_{\bf ABLE~X}.$ ${\bf T}_{\bf ABLE~X}$ Table of the Sine-integral and Cosine-integral for values of the argument above 20.

x.	Si x.	Ci æ.	x.	Si x.	Ci x.
				+1.57 041 97	+0.00 524 95
	+1.54 824 17	+0.04 441 98	190	1.56 838 23	_ 437 84
	1.53 148 26	_ 0 684 86	200		_ 333 22
25	1.56 675 65	_ 3 303 24	300	1.57 088 11	000 41
30	1.90 019 09				_ 212 40
		- 1 147 99	400	1.57 211 49	_ 093 20
35	1.59 692 22		500	1.57 256 59	
40	1.58 698 51		600	1.57 246 12	+ 007 64
45	1.55 871 50	+ 1 863 17		111	
i		2 502 04	700	1.57 199 39	+ 077 88
50	1.55 161 71	- 0 562 84	800	1.57 135 51	+ 111 82
55	1.57 072 41	_ 1 817 26	900	1.57 072 15	+ 110 86
60	1.58 674 56	_ 0 481 32	300	1	
-			1000	1.57 023 31	+ 082 63
65	1.57 747 11	+ 1 284 74	2000	1.57 097 98	+ 046 51
70	1.56 159 49	+ 1 092 20		1.57 112 15	+ 007 32
75	1.55 857 96	_ 0 533 23	3000	13, 112 10	'
13	1 33 007 30	1		1.57 097 89	_ 017 08
0.0	1.57 233 09	_ 1 240 25	4000	1.57 076 54	_ 019 76
80	1.58 239 84	_ 0 193 48	5000		_ 007 13
85	1.57 566 34	+ 0 998 61	6000	1.57 064 57	
90	1.97 300 94	1		ac# 00	+ 007 24
	1.56 303 63	+ 0 710 98	7000	1.57 067 32	1
95		_ 0 514 88	8000	1.57 078 81	+ 012 47
100	1.56 222 55	_ 0 031 96	9000	1.57 088 39	+ 000 04
110	1.57 988 05	= 0 001 50	_		_ 063 06
	1	+ 0 478 12	10,000	1.57 089 15	
120	1.56 397 22	0 710 01	11,000	1.57 082 20	_ 008 72
130	1.57 367 63		100,000	1.57 080 63	+ 000 04
140	1.57 215 91	+ 0 701 11	100,000	i	
		0 450 65	1,000,000	1.57 079 54	_ 000 04
150	1.56 616 68	- 0 479 65	10,000,000	C1	+ 000 00
160	1.57 688 50	+ 0 140 94	100,000,000	Co	+0.00 000 00
170	1.56 526 71	+ 0 200 65	. ,	-1 ο, ο, ο σο -5 π	0.0
180		-0.00 443 21	x	2"	1

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TABLE XI.—Maxima and Minima Values of the Sine-integral.

		diponent and a second and a second		
#.	Si $(x\pi)-\frac{\pi}{2}$.	x , Si $(x\pi)-\frac{\pi}{2}$.	$x. \qquad \text{Si}(x\pi) - \frac{\pi}{2}.$	$x. \qquad \text{Si } (x\pi) - \frac{\pi}{2},$
1	+0.28 114 07	21 +0.01 515 07	50 -0.00 636 57	350 -0-00 090 95
2	- 15 264 47	22 - 01 446 26	51 + 624 09	351 + 90 69
3	+ 10 396 56	23 + 01 383 43	60 - 530 49	400 - 79 58
5 6	- 07 863 54 + 06 316 85 - 05 276 24	24 - 01 325 83 25 + 01 272 83 - 01 223 90	61 + 521 79 70 - 454 71 71 + 448 31	401 + 79 38 450 - 70 74 451 + 70 58
7	+ 04 528 92	27 + 01 178 60	80 — 397 87	500 - 63 66
8	03 966 50	28 - 01 136 53	81 + 392 96	501 + 63 53
9	+ 03 528 06	29 + 01 097 36	90 — 353 67	600 - 53 05
10	- 03 176 72	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	91 + 349 78	601 + 52 96
11	+ 02 888 93		100 - 318 30	700 - 45 47
12	- 02 648 88		101 + 315 15	701 + 45 41
13	+ 02 445 62	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	150 - 212 20	800 — 39 79
14	- 02 271 31		151 + 210 80	801 + 39 74
15	+ 02 120 16		200 - 159 15	900 — 35 37
16	- 01 987 87	36 - 00 884 06	201 + 158 36	901 + 35 33
17	+ 01 871 10	37 + 00 860 17	250 - 127 32	1000 - 31 83
18	- 01 767 29	38 - 00 837 54	251 + 126 82	1001 + 31 80
19	+ 01 674 38	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	300 - 106 10	2000 - 15 92
20	-0.01 590 75		301 +0.00 105 75	2001 + 0.00 15 91

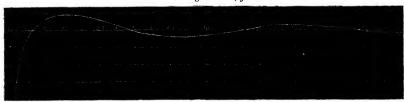
Table XII.—Maxima and Minima Values of the Cosine-integral.

x.	Ci $\frac{x\pi}{2}$.	x.	$C_1 \frac{x\pi}{2}$.	æ	$\operatorname{Ci} \frac{x\pi}{2}$.	x.	$\operatorname{Ci} \frac{x\pi}{2}$.
1	+0.4 720 007	39	$\begin{array}{rrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrr$	77	+0.0 082 667	501	+0.0 012 707
3	- 1 984 076	41		79	- 80 574	599	- 10 628
5	+ 1 237 723	43		99	- 64 300	601	+ 10 593
7	- ·0 895 640	45	+ 141 415	101	+ 63 027	699	- 09 108
9	+ ·0 700 653	47	- 135 401	119	- 53 494	701	+ 09 082
11	- ·0 575 011	49	+ 129 879	121	+ 52 610	799	- 07 968
13	+ ·0 487 422	51	- 124 789	139	- 45 798	801	+ 07 948
15	- ·0 422 916	53	+ 120 082	141	+ 45 148	899	- 07 081
17	+ ·0 373 449	55	- 115 718	159	- 40 038	901	+ 07 066
19	$\begin{array}{rrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrr$	57	+ 111 660	161	+ 39 540	999	- 06 373
21		59	- 107 877	179	35 564	1001	+ 06 360
23		61	+ 104 341	181	+ 35 171	1099	- 05 793
25	+ ·0 254 320	63	- 101 030	199	$\begin{array}{ccccc} - & 31 & 990 \\ + & 31 & 672 \\ - & 21 & 291 \end{array}$	1101	+ 05 782
27	- ·0 235 525	65	+ 097 923	201		1199	- 05 310
29	+ ·0 219 314	67	- 095 001	299		1201	+ 05 301
31	- ·0 205 189	69	+ 092 248	301	+ 21 150	1299	- 04 901
33	+ ·0 192 772	71	- 089 650	399	- 15 955	1301	+ 04 893
35	- ·0 181 771	73	+ 087 195	401	+ 15 876	1399	- 04 551
37	+ 0·0 171 958	75	-0.0 084 870	499	-0.0 012 758	1401	+0.0 004 544





The Cosine-integral Curve, y = Ci x.



Note added July 30, 1870.

Professor Oppermann, of Copenhagen, who was present at the reading of this paper, shortly afterwards presented to the Royal Society two pamphlets, "Tabulæ logarithmi integralis, auctore L. Steneers, Malmogiæ, Pars I. 1861, Pars II. 1867," containing values of $\lim_{x\to 1} x = 15$ to x=3.5 at intervals of $\lim_{x\to 1} x = 18$ to the arguments differ therefore from those in this paper by the modulus of the common logarithms as a factor. From a reference in the second of these tracts the author found that Tables of $\lim_{x\to 1} x = 18$, and $\lim_{x\to 1} x = 18$ from 0 to 1 at intervals of $\lim_{x\to 1} x = 18$ from 1 to 7.5 at intervals of 0.1, had been computed by Bretschneider, and published in the 6th volume of Schlömich's 'Zeitschrift für Mathematik und Physik.' The referees recommended the comparison of the parts common to these Tables and those given in this paper; this has been made, and the following errors have been found in Bretschneider's values:—

li e^a for a=0.34 should be -0.13036 32936 instead of -0.13030 32936 li e^{-a} for a=1.9 should be -0.05620 43781; instead of -0.05620 43780;

4.9 | 37.33245 | 06037 : | -0.00129 | 14833 . | 18.66687 | 10435 : | 1.56955 | 89381 the error previously alluded to in Ei(-5) is corrected in this paper.

BRETSCHNEIDER has indicated by dots certain limits between which the eleventh figure must lie, and the agreement between these and the eleventh figure in the Tables V. to VIII. was so close, that it seemed worth while to retain this figure, on the understanding that it may be in error to the extent of a unit.

XXI. Researches on Solar Physics.—No. II. The Positions and Areas of the Spots observed at Kew during the years 1864, 1865, 1866, also the Spotted Area of the Sun's visible disk from the commencement of 1832 up to May 1868. By Warren De La Rue, Esq., D.C.L, V.P.R.S., F.R.A.S., Balfour Stewart, Esq., LL.D., F.R.S., F.R.A.S., Superintendent of the Kew Observatory, and Benjamin Loewx, Esq., F.R.A.S.

Received February 15,-Read March 10, 1870.

20. In a paper presented to the Society and published in the Philosophical Transactions for 1869 (vol. clix. p. 1), we have given a full description of the method adopted by us for ascertaining the positions and areas of the various sun-spots observed at Kew, and we have likewise, in Tables II. and III. of that paper, given the areas and the positions determined after the method described by us, for the various sun-spots of the years 1862 and 1863. In the present paper we give the same elements for the years 1864, 1865, and 1866, forming Tables II. and III., so that these Tables in our present paper form a continuation of the Tables bearing the same number in our previous paper.

We have stated elsewhere that Hofrath Schwabe, of Dessau, had very generously put into our hands the valuable collection of drawings of the solar disk made by him during the course of about forty years, and thus it became an object of importance to us to fix upon some method of testing the value of these drawings, and of extracting from them what information they might contain.

Method of examination of Schwabe's drawings.

21. A cursory inspection of these drawings revealed the existence of several progressive stages in accuracy of delineation, from the time of their commencement in 1825 to that of their termination in 1867. By the commencement of the year 1832 the indefatigable observer had evidently matured his system to such an extent as to give (no doubt, with considerable precision) the shape and area of each group, although it was not until the commencement of 1840 that he had finally fixed upon that exceedingly good system of delineation which he thenceforth pursued up to the time when he discontinued his observations.

Between the latter part of 1832 and the beginning of 1840 the circle representing the solar disk had in these drawings a diameter equal to 2.08 inches nearly, while after 1840 this was very slightly increased, being sometimes as great as 2.15 inches. There was thus no material alteration in the scale from the latter part of 1832 up to the end of

3 н

the series; and although in the beginning of 1832 the size of the disk was slightly less, being about 1.80 inch, we have thought it unnecessary to take account of this. We have therefore supposed that for all the observations of Schwaff discussed in this research the scale of delineation remained unaltered.

Previous to 1840 the disk was divided into four quarters by a vertical and horizontal diameter, but after 1840 there were drawn in addition four other lines forming a square inscribed in the circle, and having horizontal and vertical sides, and this square was by means of the two diameters cut into four smaller squares. It is possible that by this arrangement the position of a group on the solar disk might be more accurately ascertained; nevertheless we have not hesitated to commence our research from the year 1832.

- 22. From 1832 to 1854 Schwabe has the merit of being the only systematic observer of the solar disk. In November 1853 Carrington began his observations, while in February 1862 the Kew Heliograph was in regular operation under the direction of Mr. Warren De La Rue. Adopting the photographic pictures taken with the Kew instrument as the standard of accuracy, we have already shown that Carrington's results are almost equally trustworthy. It will therefore be necessary to compare Schwabe's results with those of Carrington and with the Kew series in order to test their accuracy.
- 23. In reducing Schwabe's drawings we proceeded in the following manner. Selecting an arbitrary scale, the same individual measured in terms of the scale the area of every group given by Schwabe, and occasionally during the operation (which occupied some time) he took pains to ascertain that his mode of estimation remained unaltered. We were thus furnished with a series of results which were probably affected throughout with the same personal peculiarity, but which, being founded upon an arbitrary scale, it was necessary to connect by means of a proper multiplier with that scale which we have hitherto adopted, of which the unit is one-millionth of the sun's visible hemisphere.
 - 24. The following Table will elucidate this step in the process of reduction.

Table IV.—Comparison of results derived from Schwabe by the arbitrary scale, with simultaneous results derived from Carrington's observations and from the Kew series.

Schwabe.	Carrington.	Date.	Schwabe.	Kew.
9.7	105	1862.	11.0	698
9.5	565	1863.	11.3	030
3.4	215	Jan. 1-15	21.6	1511
2.3	138	Jan. 16-31	15.7	901
		May 1-15	13.5	622
18·2 16·4	1222 1060	May 16-31	13.3	812
		j	76-0	4544
	2·7 9·5 3·4 2·3 18·2 16·4	2·7 105 9·5 565 3·4 215 2·3 138 18·2 1222 16·4 1060	2-7 105 April 20 to May 1 1862. 3-4 215 Jan. 1-15 18-2 12-2 May 16-31 May 16-31 May 16-31 16-4 1060	2·7 105 April 20 to May 1 11·9 9·5 565 1863. 3·4 215 Jan. 1-15 21·6 2·3 138 Jan. 16-31 15·7 May 1-15 13·5 18·2 12·22 May 16-31 13·3

From the left-hand series we derive 65 as the multiplier to be applied to Schwabe's

results, while from the Kew series we derive 60. On the whole, we have adopted 60 as the most probable multiplier, and by this number the measurements deduced from SCHWABE, according to the arbitrary scale, have been multiplied in order to bring them to agree with the Kew scale, of which the unit is one-millionth of the sun's visible hemisphere.

25. Applying this multiplier to each of the fortnightly results from Schwabe exhibited in Table IV., and considering Carrington and Kew as absolutely accurate, we obtain the following Table, which gives a general idea of the trustworthiness of a fortnight's observation of Schwabe.

No. of series.	Date.	Schwabe×60.
	1854.	
1.	Dec. 1-15	162
2.	Nov. 16-30	570
3.	Sept. 1-15	204
4.	Sept. 16-30	138
	1859.	

Dec. 1-15

Dec. 16-31.....

1862. April 20 to May 1

1863. Jan. 1-15

Jan. 16-31

May 1-15

May 16-31.....

8.

9.

10.

11.

lowing Table:-

TABLE V.

1092

1296

942

810

798

984

1222

1060

698

1511

901

622

This is we think a very satisfactory result, showing that the mean spotted area derived from a single fortnight of Schwabe is never probably far from the truth.

If instead of a single fortnight we take the mean of six fortnights, we derive the fol-

TABLE VI.

Series.	Schwabe, mean of 6 fortnights.	Standard, mean of 6 fortnights.
1-6	525	551
2-7	617	649
3-8	738	807
4-9	861	921
9-10	973	1002
10-11	924	934

which exhibits the very great trustworthiness of the means of six fortnights, or three months of Schwabe's observations.

26. We ought to add that, in estimating the spotted area of the various groups from Schwabe's pictures, we applied an approximate multiplier on account of foreshortening when the group was near the limb; but this was a part of the process on which we esteemed it superfluous to spend very great labour, inasmuch as we came to the conclusion that the distances from the centre of the various groups, as recorded by Schware, were not sufficiently precise to warrant very great refinement in the mode of estimating the foreshortening. We have not therefore attempted to make use of Schware's observations for the purpose of determining whether there be any law regulating the behaviour with regard to increase or diminution of the groups as they pass across the disk of the sun, such as we have elsewhere attempted to deduce from Carrington's observations, but we have confined ourselves to estimations of the spotted area of the whole visible disk.

We ought also to add that, in preparing our fortnightly mean values, those for the days in which the sun's disk was not observed, were obtained by interpolation, so that in Table V. the differences between the fortnights of Schwabe's series and simultaneous fortnights of Carrington's and of the Kew series may be partly accounted for by the fact that the days of observations at Dessau were not the same as those in this country. In fine, the differences registered in the Table include the uncertainty occasioned by interpolation, as well as that occasioned by the method of observation.

Description of Tables and Plate.

27. In addition to fortnightly values we have given three-monthly values for every fortnight, each of the latter being the mean of the three fortnightly values which precede, and of the three which follow it.

We have given these three-monthly means in addition to the fortnightly means, inasmuch as our experience has led us to conclude that in the former while we get rid of fluctuations of extremely small period, we yet preserve the most striking peculiarities which characterize the progress of solar disturbance.

These three-monthly means form the curve in black which accompanies this paper.

The dotted curve is obtained from the black by a simple process of equalization analogous to that described by the Astronomer Royal (Phil. Trans. 1863, p. 619), that is to say, the middle points of the various inclined black lines were joined together forming a curve of a smooth character, which by a repetition of the same process gave us the dotted line which indicates the larger or so-called eleven-yearly period of solar disturbance.

In Table VII. we have the various fortnightly means forming the first column for each year, and the three-monthly means forming the second column. For convenience's sake, in the margin of this Table each month is supposed to be capable of division, without much error, into four weeks ending on the 7th, the 14th, the 21st, and the 28th days of the month. The single fortnightly values are assumed to correspond in epoch to the 7th and 21st days, while the three-monthly values on the other hand correspond to the 14th and 28th. All those fortnightly values inclosed in brackets without an asterisk are interpolated. Those inclosed in brackets, and having an asterisk, are derived from Schwabe's observations; they occur during the time when Carrington had left off and before the Kew series had regularly commenced, and also during the time when the Kew

photoheliograph was in the process of removal from Mr. De La Rue's observatory at Cranford to the Kew Observatory.

The observations up to the end of 1853 are those of SCHWABE, those from the beginning of 1854 to the end of 1860 are those of CARRINGTON, while the remainder constitute the Kew series, with the exception of those bracketed and having an asterisk, which are derived from SCHWABE.

In Table VIII. we have for every fortnight (beginning with January 14th of each year) the readings of the equalized curve or that exhibited by a dotted line. It is proper to remark that, in order to obtain these readings, this curve was first laid down on a very much larger scale than that exhibited in the accompanying Plate.

Results of Reduction.

28. From Table VIII. we obtain the following epochs for the minima and maxima of the longer period of solar disturbances:—

	Nov. 28, 1833	
Maximum		Dec. 21, 1836
Minimum	Sept. 21, 1843	
Maximum		Nov. 14, 1847
Minimum	April 21, 1856	
Maximum		Sept. 7, 1859
Minimum	Feb. 14, 1867	

We deduce from these numbers, in the first instance, the fact of the variability of the length of the whole period

Thus we have from first to second minimum				9.81 years.
from second to third ,, .				12.58 years.
from third to fourth ,, .				10.81 years.
Mean of the three p	erio	ds		11.07 years.

Secondly, we see that in all of the three cases the time from a minimum to the next maximum is less than that from a maximum to the next minimum,—a fact which has, we think, been previously noticed by Sir J. Herschel. Thus the time from the first minimum to the next maximum is 3.06 years, and from the first maximum to the second minimum 6.75 years. In like manner that from the second minimum to the next maximum is 4.14 years, and from the second maximum to the third minimum 8.44 years. Finally, the time from the third minimum to the third maximum is 3.37 years, and from the third maximum to the fourth minimum 7.44 years. We see again that the second curve, which was longer in period as a whole than either of the other two, manifests this excess in each of its branches, that is to say, its left or ascending branch is larger as a whole than the same branch of the other two curves, and the same takes place for the second or descending branch. On the other hand, the maximum of this curve is not so

high as that of either of the other two—in fact the curve has the appearance as if it were pressed down from above, and pressed out laterally so as to lose in elevation what it gains in time.

Lastly, after undergoing the process of equalization which has been described, there is still the appearance in all the three curves of a secondary maximum in the second branch; and this peculiarity has induced us to compare the solar curves with the curves of brightness of two variable stars, the peculiarities of which have been well determined. We annex with this purpose the light-curve of R. Sagittæ (Plate XXXI. fig. 1) determined by Baxendell, showing like the sun's spot-curve a secondary maximum in the second branch of the curve; and we also exhibit the light-curve of β Lyræ (fig. 2) determined by Pogson from the observations of Argellander, exhibiting two maxima, which are, however, both of the same value as well as can be estimated.

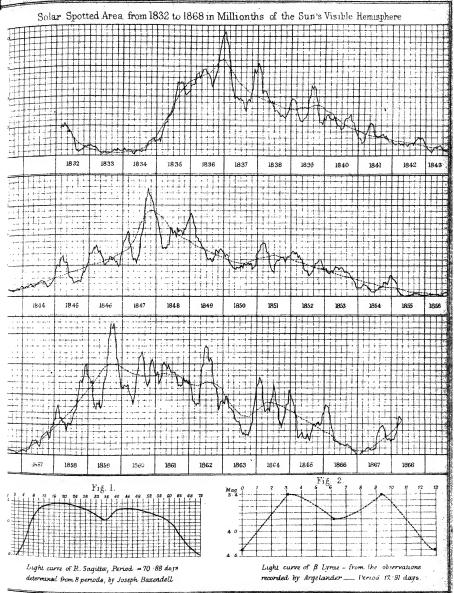
29. We were induced to imagine from our preliminary researches that the amount of spotted area may possibly be influenced by the positions of the planets in such a way as to exhibit excessive solar action when two influential planets are together at the same ecliptical longitude; we therefore resolved to test this hypothesis by the series of results which we have just described. As the two most influential combinations, we have selected that of Venus and Jupiter, and that of Venus and Mercury. With regard to the former combination, or that of Venus and Jupiter, as the period is about eight months, the influence, if any, would not be materially equalized by the three-monthly means, and it might therefore be expected to appear in the black curve which represents these means, separated to a great extent from any influence of shorter period, such as that due to conjunctions of Mercury and Venus.

Any influence due to the relative positions of Jupiter and Venus might therefore be supposed to show itself in the curve of three-monthly means, and any due to the relative positions of Venus and Mercury in the fortnightly curves.

Viewing, therefore, the dotted curve as the normal line which equalizes all the inequalities of short period, including that which may be due to the relative positions of Jupiter and Venus, we have laid down the departures of the black curve from the dotted one for every fortnight of the whole series of observations; and joining all these into a curve, we have found from it the united values of the departures corresponding to those times when Venus and Jupiter were between 0° and 30° of one another, or between 30° and 60°, between 60° and 90°, and so on.

There are in all fifty-four periods.

30. In like manner, if we take the three-monthly curves as equalizing any influence due to the relative positions of Venus and Mercury, and lay down the departures of the fortnightly means from the corresponding three-monthly means, we are thus furnished with another set of departures which we may suppose likely to exhibit any influence due to the relative positions of Venus and Mercury. But these departures of very short period will no doubt embody, as well as inequalities due to physical causes, others



due to the fact that large groups come abruptly into view, and depart abruptly from the disk of the sun, so that a high positive departure for one fortnight is sometimes followed by a negative one for the next.

We have endeavoured to eliminate the effect of this source of inequality by the following means. Suppose, for instance, that the departures for the beginning of 1850 are as follows:—

(1)	January	7		+194
(2)		21		- 66
(3)	Februar	y 7		- 68
(4)		21		+ 36
(5)	March	7		+228
(6)		21		_ 13

we should, by taking the mean of (1) and (2) of (2) and (3), and so on, form a second series as follows:—

If this operation be repeated once more, we obtain results which, without any further attempt at equalization, may be formed into a series of short-period curves, which may be taken to be due to some physical cause, and from which we may hope to discover traces of the action of Mercury if such exist.

We have, as in the previous case, taking this curve as our basis, found the united departures for those times when Mercury and Venus are between 0° and 30° of one another, between 30° and 60° , and so on. There are in all ninety periods of this nature.

31. The results of our investigation regarding planetary influence are exhibited in the following Table:—

Angular separation	Excess or deficiency.						
between	Jupiter and Venus.	Venus and Mercury					
o and 30	+ 881	+1675					
30 " 60	- 60	- 139					
60 ,, 90	- 452	-1665					
90 ,, 120	- 579	-2355					
120 ,, 150	- 705	-2318					
150 , 180	- 759	-1604					
180 , 210	- 893	- 481					
210 ,, 240	- 752	+ 547					
240 , 270	- 263	+ 431					
270 ,, 300	+ 70	+ 228					
300 ,, 330 *	+ 480	+1318					
330 ,, 360	+1134	+2283					

TABLE VI a.

From this Table it would appear that these observations so treated exhibit for Jupiter and Venus an excess of solar activity when these two planets are together, and a deficiency when they are apart, and that the same kind of influence, slightly modified in form, is exhibited in the case of Venus and Mercury.

Postscript (added 5th March).—Received March 10, 1870.

Since writing the above we have thought it worth while to investigate, after the manner we have described, the influence, if any, upon solar disturbance of the relative positions of Mercury and Jupiter, and also that of Mercury alone in its varying distances from the sun, and we have obtained the following results:—

TABLE VI b.

Angular separation * between	Mercury and his Perihelion (Perihelion =0).	Mercury and Jupiter.				
$\overset{\circ}{0}$ and $\overset{\circ}{30}$	— 380	-227				
30 " 60	-1188	-317				
60 ,, 90	-1287	-594				
90 ,, 120	-1262	-714				
120 ,, 150	-1208	-508				
150 ,, 180	-1027	-491				
180 ,, 210	— 519	-416				
210 ,, 240	+ 430	-189				
240 ,, 270	+1082	— 25				
270 ,, 300	+1436	+154				
300 " 330	+1282	+164				
330 " 360	+ 586	- 45				

The numbers in the above Table are smaller than those in the Tables already given; but this may be owing to the method of equalization we have adopted, which will necessarily tell very greatly in small periods.

Nevertheless there appears to be a certain amount of likeness between the march of the numbers in the four periods which we have investigated, namely, those of Venus and Jupiter, Venus and Mercury, Mercury and his Perihelion, and Mercury and Jupiter.

We desire to record this rather as a result brought out by a certain specified method of treating the material at our disposal, than as a fact from which we are at present prepared to draw conclusions. As the investigation of these and similar phenomena proceeds it may be hoped that much light will be thrown upon the causes of sun-spot periodicity.

July 11, 1870.—Sir J. Herschel has kindly permitted us to append the following remarks which he has made upon the foregoing paper:—

* In all the above Tables equal angles have been supposed to be described in equal times; there will be a slight correction on this account for Mercury and his Perihelion.

"The curves, as delineated for the three complete periods embraced, are highly interesting and instructive. They place in a very clear and unmistakable light the anticipation in point of time of the occurrence of the maximum of maculiferous excitement before the middle of the total period which the present rapidly increasing number of spots actually in progress seems to promise fully to confirm for the period (1866.6-1877.7); and here I cannot help observing that although the lengths of the three periods. here embraced vary between 9.81 and 12.68 years, yet the mean of the three is almost exactly 11.1, and this agrees with the whole course of the solar history since 1800, which was a year of maximum. Another point of much interest is the evaluation of the spotted area in numerical aliquots of the solar surface, showing to how very small an extent the sun is entitled to the character of a variable star (in so far at least as diminution and increase of illuminated area are to be regarded as causes of variability). total fluctuation arising from this cause it appears does not exceed about 2000 parts in a million, or about $\frac{1}{200}$ part of the total light, which in estimating the brightness of a star would be quite inappreciable*. The tendency to a double maximum, an earlier and a later, pointed out as analogous to those observed in \(\beta\) Lyræ and R. Sagittæ, it may be worth noticing, has a similar though less strongly marked analogous feature in the light curve of n Argûs, as laid down for a periodic variation sixty-seven years in duration by Professor Loomis, which presents a subordinate maximum (followed by a rather marked depression) at about the twenty-sixth year, the principal one being deferred to the forty-fourth of the total period; and this law is observed in three successive periods."

It has also been suggested to us by Sir W. Thomson, in connexion with that part of our paper which refers to the possible connexion between sun-spots and planetary position, to take arbitrary periods, viz. three-fourths of the planetary period, which we have taken, and to compare the results of these with the results derived in our paper. We have done this in the case of Venus and Jupiter, and also in that of Venus and Mercury, and have obtained the following numbers:—

Three-fourths of the period	Three-fourths of the period					
of Venus and Jupiter.	of Venus and Mercury.					
. —117	— 184					
-287	— 754					
-694	-1621					
-631	-1196					
-461	+ 567					
-140	+1764					
+441	+ 848					
+310	— 466					
-139	- 605					

We have not lost sight of the very small amount of variation in the brightness of the solar surface attributable
 MDCOCLXX.

It will be seen from these numbers that the curves derived from these arbitrary periods are both less marked than the corresponding curves derived from the full periods, although the number of series summed together has been increased in the proportion of four to three.

In conclusion, we may state that when we proposed that the present series of observations should terminate in February 1872, we were under the impression that the period was nearer ten than eleven years. The results of this paper would tend to show that the period is over eleven years; nevertheless we do not propose an extension of our series, for we think that the maximum will probably be reached before the proposed termination.

We ought also to state that in all probability the disturbances which we have hitherto registered are only those which occur in the lower regions of the sun's atmosphere. It is therefore our intention to supplement our research on sun-spots with an evaluation of the faculæ or bright patches, which are also signs of solar disturbance, but which occur in the higher and not in the lower regions of the solar atmosphere. The best method of doing this is at present engaging our attention.

to the variation in the number of spots, and we have had it in contemplation to make direct observations of variability in the actinism of the sun in order to ascertain whether the period of greatest brightness is or is not coincident with that of the maximum of spotted area; for it is not improbable that the sun may be the most brilliant when most spotted.

A thorough examination of the solar photographs will no doubt do much to elucidate the subject, but these have the disadvantage of only representing with the greatest distinctness the faculæ which are nearest the limb; on the other hand direct actinic observations are interfered with by the ever varying conditions of the earth's atmosphere, and also by the variations of the sun's meridian altitude, so that it will be necessary to combine both methods of observation.

ON SOLAR PHINICS.

TABLE VII.—Solar Spotted Area (in millionths).

Column I. contains the fortnightly means, Column II. contains the means of the three fortnights preceding, and the three following the date.

	1832.		1833.		1834.		1835.		1836.		1837.	
	I.	11.	I.	11.	I.	n.	1.	11.	I.	II.	I.	H.
January 7.	72		12		18		132		930		2124	
14. 21.	318		 294	183	6	135	66	249	1134	1195	2412	2081
28.				165		95		298		1193		1983
February 7.	210	450	102	152	276	96	354	222	1350	1205	2028	1836
21. 28.	726	509	282	153	258	98	246	329	1944	1314	2052	1693
March 7-	666		132	••••	6	,	486		954		1272	
14. 21.	708	477	90	106	12	97	48	445	918	1380	1128	1436
28. April 7.	426	543	18	92	30	51	774	539	1584	1390	1266	1203
14.	•••••	530		55		27		563		1290		1027
21. 28.	126	489	12	33	0	38	762	633	1530	1356	870	926
May 7.	606	434	18		0	 68	918	684	1410	1444	630	984
21.	648		60		114		390		1344		996	
28. June 7.	420	395	0		72	72	906	683	1350	1448	966	982
14. 21.	378	388	0	37	192	86	354	723	1446	1465	1176	956
28.		304		36	••••	87		771		1400		972
July 7. 14.	192	199	126	31	54	72	768	941	1608	1360	1254	930
21. 28.	84	150	18	47	84	 85	1002	1058	1632	1317	714	935
August 7.	102		12	*****	6		[1206]		1020		[726]	
14. 21.	18	88	30	65	24	91	[1410]	1233	1104	1214	744	862
28. September 7.	126	72	96	75	150	87	1608	1220	1092	1153	996	754
14.		79	******	79	•••••	166	,	1224		1208	• • • • • • •	903
21. 28.	6	96	108	99	228	197	1404	1235	828	1267	738	953
October 7.	96	118	186	 9s	30	241	690	1212	1242	1369	606	911
21.	126		42		558		1026		1962		1608	
November 7.	204	137	132	123	192	248	1272	1105	1374	1497	1026	1011
14. 21.		164	24	106	288	294	1272	1012	1716	1694	492	1113
28.		150		78		311		1052		1841		1466
December 7.	240	178	246	72	192	229	966	1070	[1860]	1916	1596	1375
21. 28.	168	161	6	96	504	256	846	1083	2010	2025	1350	1418
20.	•••••	101		30		200		1000		2020		1410

TABLE VII. (continued).

	1838,		18	1839.		1840.		1841.		1842.		1843.	
	I.	n.	I.	n,	I.	n.	I.	n.	I.	n.	I.	n.	
January 7.	2724		732		726		276		78		150		
14.		1561		965		600		290		219		118	
21. 28.	1062	1488	1362	941	612	658	168	277	186	185	126	99	
February 7.	1284	1400	1212	941	960	038	204	211	228	100	102	33	
14.		1410		941		685		211		172		76	
21.	1350		1104		408		222		72		6		
28.	13.50	1138	670	895	774	648	246	241	294	208	60	53	
March 7.	1158	1103	678	774	774	635	240	275	294	215		70	
21.	882		558		630		150		174		12		
28.		1082		670		621		382		193		104	
April 7.	1092	1000	456		504	636	456	440	294	700	12	140	
14. 21.	852	1032	636	591	534	030	372		228	199	228	140	
28.		983		585		607		483		191		151	
May 7.	1158		588		876		846		96		306		
14.	::::::	945		581		549		533		206	900	159	
21.	1050	883	630	640	498	513	570	518	108	183	222	161	
28. June 7.	864		642		600		504		246		126		
14.		923		632		506		474		155		139	
21.	654		534		282		450		264		60		
28.		820		705		462	200	261	156	195	24	103	
July 7.	720	747	810	898	288	466	366	333		202		90	
21.	1092		588		492		108		60		96		
28.		769		1003		543		305		212		69	
August 7.	540		1026		612		168		336		90		
14.		729	1700	1159	500	608	402	323	150	176	144	61	
21. 28.	612	701	1788	1133	522	618	402	327	130	197	144	73	
September 7.	996		1272		1062		336		306		0		
14.		663		1162		635		336		257		57	
21.	414		1470		672		558		48	******	12		
28.		682	C	1076	340	665	200	351	282	282	96	76	
October 7.	552	667	654	855	348	690	390	304	202	306		92	
21.	864		762		594		162		420		0		
28.		638		714		567		331		284		111	
November 7.	654		510	:-:	792		258		486		204		
14.		662	460	547	670	546	100	280	904	301	240	118	
21. 28.	522	692	462	559	672	534	120	228	294	279	240	124	
December 7.	822	092	426		324		498		174		114		
14.		775		534		463		232		230		148	
21.	558		468		546		252		150		54		
28.		868		609		365		227		166		132	

	18	944. '	18	345.	18	146.	16	347.	16	348.
	I.	II.	I.	II.	I.	II.	I.	11.	I,	II.
January 7.	132		432		300		438	l	1650	
14.	•••••	125		433		700		881		1270
21. 28.	144	122	402	517	948		1038		1098	
February 7.	108	122	354	317	414	696	1146	936	1158	1206
14.		137		493		734		1033		1058
21.	198		924		1260		1278		912	
28.	96	120		597		786		1070		867
March 7.		162	576	651	618	792	1332	961	834	770
21.	144		270		864	132	966		696	770
28.		177		662		846		852		814
April 7.	30		1056		612	:	660		504	
14. 21.	396	172	726	559	984	724	384	714	516	796
28.		158	720	547	304	762	304	597	310	835
May 7.	198		420		738		492		1422	
14.		139		539		677		622		844
21.	168		306	200	528		450	******	804	
28. June 7.	12	191	504	389	846	647	430	536	1068	1014
14.		179		307		569	430	612	1008	1141
21.	30		222		354		1116		750	
28.		219		288		504		677		1035
July 7.	342	233	156	276	432		144		1524	
21.	324	200	234	2/6	516	548	840	929	1278	1094
28.		245		201		552		1040		984
August 7.	438		306		348		882		786	
14.		246		231		654		1195		1150
21.	252		234		792		1962	1.700	1158	1070
28. September 7.	84	239	54	228	870	637	1296	1500	408	1073
14.		210		262		602	1230	1634	1	1098
21.	36		402	•••••	966		2046		1746	
28.		153		254		634		1776		1083
October 7.	300	100	138	244	330		1974	1607	1062	1016
14. 21.	150	129	438		306	562	1644	1687	1428	1016
28.		127		342		584		1674		1106
November 7.	96		258		540		1734		696	
14.		190		381		487		1597		1102
21.	108	212	174	408	360		1428	1543	756	1175
28. December 7.	72	212	642	408	1002	505	1218	1343	948	. 1175
14.		254		493		627	1210	1452	340	1244
21.	414		636		384		1584		1722	
28.		297		519		728	1	1356		1315

TABLE VII. (continued).

	18	349.	16	350.	16	351.	18	352.	18	53.
	I.	п.	ī.	п	L	II.	1	II.	I.	п.
January 7.	1500		864		624		744		420	
14.		1372		633		739		728		455
21.	1842	:	600	698	600		828		348	
February 7.	1122	1334	618	698	1368	780	498	754	282	406
14.		1215	1	675		863	130	696		386
21.	1098		666		966		852		564	
28.		1151		584		876		718		400
March 7.	720	989	792	545	786	884	528	654	174	412
21.	1008	303	510		834		726	004	528	412
28.		947		501		837	,	657		425
April 7.	1116		318		702		876		504	
14.		899		451	640	746	";;;;	618		404
21. 28.	870	896	366	446	648	714	444	597	420	484
May 7.	868		354		1086		516		360	
14.		816	******	438		681		529		485
21.	810		366		420		618		438	
28.	:::	778		473		637		425		485
June 7.	702		762	456	594	585	402	423	654	450
14. 21.	528	743	462		636		318	420	534	473
28.		682		478		488		405		483
July 7.	888		528		438		252		504	
14.		615		495		523		351		485
21.	660		264		336		432		348	*****
28. August 7.	504	610	486	453	504	567	408	362	420	446
14.	304	624		532		597		379		401
21.	408		468		630		294		450	
28.		573		514		596		405	· ;	408
September 7.	672	•••••	510		858		468		420	
14.		594		545	816	647	420	467	264	412
21. 28.	612	651	936	513	810	635	420	519		404
October 7.	582		420		432		408		546	
14.		769		529		630		562		347
21.	786		450		642		804		372	
28.		724		534		549		562		310
November 7.	846	720	294	434	432	592	720	600	372	287
14. 21.	1116	730	564	434	600		552		108	201
28.	1110	777		468		644		602		209
December 7.	402		540		372		468		198	
14.		746	<u>.</u>	493		675		526		150
21.	648		336		1074		648	450	126	
28.		708		672		686	*****	453		130

TABLE VII. (continued).

	18	54.	18.	55.	. 18	56.	18	57.	18	58.
	I.	п.	I.	П.	I.	п.	I.	11.	I.	п.
January 7.	77		373		0		158		1404	
14.		136		269		23		61		591
21.	19		625		0		19		378	
February 7.	252	137		269		9		61		782
February 7.		143	339	264	35	9	137	55	741	837
21.	142		133		17		5		385	
28.		185		202		13	!	73		621
March 7.	208		103		0	::	2		1279	
21.	159	200	10	99	0	15	6	76	837	618
28.		177		47		9		123		545
April 7.	330	,	2		23		266		106	
14.		156		25		6		187		564
21. 28.	111	125	5	9	12	11	38	210	358	484
May 7.	114		26	9			419	210	305	*****
14.		122		8		11		220		411
21.	12		1		0	•••••	389		501	
28.		70		7		7		212		528
June 7.	26	68	11		28	14	144	246	796	526
21.	138		i	7	0	14	66	240	399	320
28.		76		5		14		184		523
July 7.	19		0		0		213		810	
14.		78		5		62		141		588
21. 28.	97	109	0	3	58	61	245	218	342	696
August 7.	165		18		0		46	216	289	
14.		109		3		62		297		722
21.	22		0		285		132		889	
28.		135	•••••	7		62		316		815
September 7.	215	130	0	20	25	53	603	338	1448	977
21.	138		i		2		540		556	377
28.		140		19		53		379	; ; •••••	1205
October 7.	171		20		0		330		1364	
14. ' 21.		230		20		11		374		1241
28.	70	212	82	34	3	8	375	295	1313	1219
November 7.	223		12		2		295	293	1657	
14.		196		34		14		289		1309
21.	565		4		36		101		1110	
28.		229		30		41		468	1019	1489
December 7.	105	322	82	17	2	43	129	469	1313	 1510
21.	40		2		42	70	506	409	1098	
28.		341		21	-	66		543		1337

TABLE VII. (continued).

4	18	359.	18	60.	186	31.	186	2.	186	3.
•	I.	n.	I.	II.	I.	11	I.	11.	I.	17.
January 7.	2442		442		[1140*]		[936*]		1511	
.14.		1308		1109		1377	[[]	1188		883
21.	1440	:::::	1097	:::::	[810*]	:::::	[948*]		901	******
February 7.	620	1199	1834	1157	[588*]	1181	1209	1038	[654*]	959
14.		1244		1128	[366]	1239	1203	879	[004]	969
21.	934		1003		[1722*]		1215		[960*]	
28.		888	;;;;;	1165	 [1404#7	1332		858	C050#3	820
March 7.	661	768	1474	1071	[1494*]	1479	750	823	[858*]	763
21.	1367		917		[1680*]		220		[930*]	
28.		869		980		1551		848		758
April 7.	306		666		[1698*]	1504	805	049	[618*]	
14. ° 21. i	718	861	531	961	[1692*]	1504	742	843	[558*]	733
28.		904		833		1427		1110		689
May 7.	1230		1289		[1020*]		1356	*****	622	••••••
14. 21.	884	772	880	895	F1440#7	1492	1107	1440	812	573
28.		820		1203	[1440*]	1465	1187	1501		589
June 7.	918		708		[1032*]		2351		593	
14.		1210		1423		1368		1776	1	546
21.) 28. ₁	576	1237	1286	1631	[2070*]	1270	2199	1814	233	540
July 7.	592		2518	1031	[1536*]	1370	1170	1014	720	310
14.		1497		1624		1368		1795		436
21.	3062		1852	:::::	[1110*]		2396	*****	298	
28.	1207	1904	05.90	1706	F1000#7	1330	1500	1544	587	348
August 7.	1387	1990	2538	1581	[1032*]	1256	1580	1627	307	358
21.	2444		842		[1428*]		1073		183	
28.		2186		1401		1143		1558		338
September 7.	3365	2070	1200	1201	[804*]	1160	849	1076	69	949
14. 21.	1090	2078	534	1301	[1626*]	1162	2692	1276	292	343
28.		2170		1144		1139		1131		316
October 7.	1765		1443	•••••	[858*]		759		598	
21.	2414	1951	1051	1213	F1004*7	1158	705	1123	331	356
28.	2414	1594	1251	1458	[1224*]	1299	705	1049		440
November 7.	1941		1597		[894*]		708		422	
14.		1589		1591		1223	:::::	745		610
21.	1131	1260	1255	1547	[1542*]	1026	1023	970	427	766
28. December 7.	1222	1368	2670	1541	Γ1650*7	1236	405	870	573	766
14.		1152		1467	[1000]	1190		903		1004
21.	1060		1332		[1170*]		869		1312	
28.		1131		1297		1242		894	•••••	1090

TABLE VII. (continued).

. Cr	186	34.	186	35.	186	36.	186	37.	18	68.
	I.	II.	1.	II.	T.	п.	I.	II.	I.	II.
January 7.	15337		341		964		0		587	
14.		1163		916		815		2		261
21. 28.	1755	1293	1777	821	767	804	0	2	25 	266
February 7.	941	1290	980		1108		0		76	
14.		1222		689		779		23		309
21.	863		254		1239		0		433	342
28. March 7.	1352	1075	350	669	283	655	12	49	242	
14.		802		404		553		51		537
21.	888		437		318		126	:	490	
28.	651	706	215	276	218	396	160	54	787	618
April 7. 14.	654	751	215	321		221	100	101		578
21.	113		167		155		6		1197	
28.		777		362		214		107		İ
May 7.	364	~40	216	295	162	203	19	. 88	559	
14. 21.	1136	740	519		187		282		193	
28.		855		277		189		74	1	1
June 7.	1505		598		247	173	. 52	73	:	
14. 21.	671	915	36	274	248	172	8		1	
28.		1169		316		171	i	79	i	
July 7.	1342		105		137		76		1	
14.		1041		295	47	183	' ······	108	1	
21. 25.	655	859	17.2	239		160	\	258		
August 7.	1708		465		158		55			
14.		763		, 353		153		362		
21.	364		395	480	261	146	[457]	433		
28. September 7. 1	411	566	259	,	109		951	1		
14.		532		499		169		449		
21.,	96		723		207		630			
28. 1	164	446	869	477	92	144	504	477		
October 7.	164	557	803	514		119	,	417		
21.	4 17		255		190		96			
28.		64.2		529	8	103	226	293		
November 7.	1192	829	330	487	8	68	220	228		
14. ₁ 21.	1034	1	622		108		97			
28.		859		503		53		241		
December 7.	920		350		11	21	207	229		
14. 21.	1222	1081	465	583	0		236			
28.	1232	1046	400	713		19		204	1	
1		1		İ	i	f		I	1	

MESSRS. DE LA BUE, STEWART, AND LOEWY'S RESEARCHES

Table VIII.—Table exhibiting the eleven-yearly period of Solar spot activity, equalized for shorter periods.

-	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1543.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849
Jan. 14.		120	55	375	1250	1580	930	790	775	415	265	155	115	295	500	730	1375	890
28.		110	55	415	1265	1555	975	790	760	405	255	150	120	305	510	750	1365	875
Feb. 14.		105	60	450	1280	1515	965	785	745	395	250	140	125	315	515	765	1350	860
28.		100	60	490	1290	1475	955	785	725	399	245	130	130	325	525	780	1320	850
Mar. 14.		95	65	525	1300	1435	945	785	705	385	210	120	140	340	535	815	1290	840
28.		95	70	565	1315	1400	935	790	685	380	235	115	150	350	515	845	1260	825
Apr. 14.		90	75	605	1325	1365	925	800	665	370	230	115	155	355	550	880	1220	810
28.		85	80	645	1335	1330	915	805	645	360	225	110	160	365	555	920	1190	800
May 14.		85	85	690	1345	1300	905	845	620	355	220	110	170	375	565	965	1165	795
28.		80	90	730	1855	1270	900	805	600	350	215	105	180	380	570	1020	1145	785
June 14.		75	100	780	1360	1240	890	810	580	345	210	100	183	390	580	1080	1115	775
28.	305	70	110	830	1370	1215	880	815	560	340	205	100	190	395	590	1140	1095	760
Taly 14.	285	70	120	875	1380	1183	870	820	545	335	205	95	200	400	600	1200	1070	750
28.	260	65	130	925	1390	1170	860	825	530	330	200	90	205	410	610	1250	1660	740
Aug. 14.	240	60	140	970	1405	1140	850	830	520	325	200	90	215	420	615	1300	1010	730
28.	220	60	150	1005	1425	1120	840	840	500	320	195	90	220	425	625	1330	1020	715
Sept. 14.	· 205	55	165	1045	1455	1100	830	840	490	315	195	85	230	430	635	1565	1000	705
28.	185	50	180	1080	1480	1080	815	845	480	310	190	83	240	440	645	1390	985	695
Oct. 14.	170	50	200	1120	1510	1065	805	845	470	305	185	90	245	415	655	1105	970	680
28.	155	50	225	1145	1550	1050	800	840	460	300	180	95	255	450	665	1410	960	670
Nov. 14.	145	50	250	1170	1575	1035	800	830	450	295	175	95	265	460	675	1115	945	660
28.	135	45	280	1195	1600	1025	795	820	440	285	170	100	270	475	690	1410	930	650
Dec. 14.	125	50	315	1220	1610	1015	795	805	435	280	165	105	280	480	700	1405	915	640
28.	120	50	350	1240	1610	1000	790	795	425	270	160	115	290	490	710	1100	900	630

Table VIII.—Table exhibiting the eleven-yearly period of Solar spot activity, equalized for shorter periods.

1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868
625	630	620	430	270	135	35	80	465	1115	1440	1325	1180	1000	765	710	370	55	375
620	640	610	425	265	135	35	90	485	1150	1425	1330	1170	955	780	695	355	50	400
610	645	600	415	255	130	30	100	505	1175	1410	1335	1160	920	800	680	350	51)	426
600	650	590	405	250	125	25	105	535	1200	1400	1340	1160	890	815	660	340	50	44:
595	655	580	400	245	120	25	115	555	1250	1390	1345	1160	855	835	640	315	55	475
590	660	575	395	235	115	23	125	580	1275	1380	1350	1160	825	855	630	295	55	500
580	660	565	390	230	110	20	135	600	1305	1370	1350	1165	795	870	615	280	60	525
575	665	555	380	225	100	20	115	630	1340	1355	1350	-1175	770	570	600	265	65	
570	670	550	370	220	95	25	155	660	1360	1350	1350	1185	745	870	590	250	75	
565	673	540	365	215	90	25	165	695	1400	1345	1350	1190	725	865	570	230	90	
565	680	530	360	205	85	60	180	720	1425	1335	1350	1195	705	865	560	215	105	
560	685	525	355	200	80	30	195	750	1450	1325	1350	1205	685	860	550	200	120	
560	680	515	350	195	75	30	205	775	1475	1320	1350	1205	670	850	540	180	145	
555	675	505	315	190	70	35	225	800	1500	1320	1315	1205	655	845	520	165	160	
555	670	500	335	180	65	40	250	830	1505	1315	1335	1205	655	835	505	150	175	
555	665	495	325	175	60	40	270	850	1510	1305	1325	1195	655	820	425	140	200	:
560	660	485	315	165	55	45	285	885	1510	1300	1310	1180	650	805	, 475	125	210	
345	655	475	310	160	50	50	305	905	1505	1300	1290	1175	650	800	465	105	225	
573	655	465	305	155	50	55	330	915	1505	1300	1275	1170	655	790	455	95	255	
585	655	460	300	150	50	60	350	975	i500	1300	1255	1155	670	775	445	85	275	
595	650	155	290	150	45	65	375	1000	14:0	1305	1230	11:5	680	765	425	75	300	
605	610	450	285	145	45	70	400	1030	1480	1305	1215	1110	700	750	415	65	320	
615	635	445	280	140	40	70	120	1055	1475	1310	1200	1080	720	740	400	G 0	340	
620	639	410	275	140	40	75	445	1090	1455	1320	1190	1040	745	725	375	55	355	

Table II. (continued).—Showing the areas of all Sun-spots observed at the Kew Observatory from January 1, 1864 to December 31, 1866.

		Mean			Area of	W	nole for the d	lay.
Date.	Group.	distance from centre, radius=1.	Area of Penumbra.	Area of Umbra.	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot.
1864.		1			189			
Jan. 24.	526	0.974	189	230	733	1		1
,	525	0.869	503	230 4	21			i
	524	0.156	17	21	167	1		
	523	0.078	145		370			1
	521	0.562	308	61	146			
	520	0.687	123	23	145	1		
	519	0.713	108	36	95	1458	405	1866
	522	0.693	65	30	52	1	1	•
26.		0.677	35	17	1190	-		
20.	525	0.531	888	301	142	1		1
	523	0.500	118	25		1		
		0.885	408	136	545			
	521 519	0.963	170	31	201	1811	606	2418
	520	0.948	192	96	288	1911	1	170
20		0.286	446	89	535			1
28.		0.167	649	194	843		313	1537
	525	0.833	129	30	159	1224	: 310	,,
	523		120	26	147	1	1	:
30		0.594	51	8	60		:	
	526	0.250	558	122	681	1	2.112	1020
	525		,	132	132	729	288	10.00
1	523		75	16	92	;		
Feb. 4			228	57	256	j _		461
	528				83	386	73	401
	527	0.573	83	41	233	1		
	5. 529	0.401	190	66	491			
ì	528	0.271	424	12	133	734	119	857
	52	7 0.739	120	19	128		•	
1	5. 53	0.521	108	44	360			
	52	9 ¹ 0∙255	316	103	495			
1	52	8 0.156	391		98	891	188	1081
!	52		76	61	260	-		
1	0., 53		198		426			-10-
	52		362	63	477	934	536	1163
4	52		374	102	75	0		
1	7. 53		. 59	10	. 80	i .	•	1
1 1	53	- 0.40	67	12	64			
ì	5		59	4		332	. 70	410
1	5		147	44	191			1
3.7.		0.860	289	93	382		•	i
Mar.		39 0.791	110	20	131		1	i .
				13	69			1
4		38 0·373 0·312		52	187		:	
				93	443		323	1527
,				52	313		021	
			, ,	78	36		-	
				9	1 7		1	
		1 100		13	; 6		1	1
		38 0.199		78		5		9 1307
4		37 0.56	,	131	52		30	9 1 1307
		36 0.95	200	37		3 ⋅		1
1		543 0.93		35	16	9	1	
		542 0.56		37		3	!	1
1		541 + 0.59	9 : 330		1	1		

TABLE II. (continued).

Date.	Group.	Mean distance from	Area of	Area of	Area of	w	hole for the	day.
		centre, radius=1.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot
1864.						:		
Mar. 10.	540	0.815	266	88	356	870	197	1071
11.	543	0.863	110	25	136			i
	542	0.384	92	27	119	. '		
	541	0.526	411	90	502			1
10	$\frac{540}{543}$	0.920 0.668	327	109	436	940	251	1193
12.	542	0.168	91 154	28 21	119	:		i
•	541	0.394	671	138	177 810			•
	540	0.984	490	122	612	1406	309	, , , , , , ,
16.	544	0.984	441	73	514	. 1400	509	1718
,.	543	0.210	87	21	108	1		
1	542	0.736	137	25	161			
	541	0.768	523	66	589	1188	185	1372
17.	546	0.973	264	37	302	1	100	1012
	545	0.947	221	39	261			
	544	0.852	200	32	232			
	543	0.447	95	19	114	1		
	542	0.894	130	28	158			•
	541	0.893	426	58	486	1336	223	1555
18.	546	0.904	170	50	221		~~~	1000
	545	0.847	136	56	192	:		
	544	0.752	201	45	247			
	543	0.605	101	21	1.22			
	541	0.973	665	37	699		1	
	542	0.968	193	35	228	1463	244	1709
19.	546	0.799	176	33	212			
· .	545	0.694	94 .	29	123		1	
	544	0.584	173	42	215			
	543	. 0.778	73	27	100	516	133	650
23.	548	0.762	211	66	. 278		•	
i	547	0.589	-136	31	168			
	546	0.247	73	17	91			
	545	0.168	17 .		17			
	544	0.247	104	35	139	541	149	693
29.	550	0.884	171	36	208			
	549	0.342	99	36	135			
	548	$a \in i1$	171	44	216			
	547	0.789	62	50	82	. 503	136	641
30.	550	0.736	74	31	105			
	549	0·36s	128	46	174			
	548	0.826	311	76	388			
	547	0.931	95	11	107	608	164	. 774
31.	550	0-647	الوجا	33	182			1
	549	0.431	70	***	70			
1	548	0.899	241	80	365	460	113	574
April 1.	550	0.468	120	24	144			1
	549	0.631	97	10	109		0.0	
	548	0.973	264	56	321	. 481	90	574
2.	550	0.326	108	27	135	164	40	010
	549	0.799	56	21	77	164	48	212
8.	554	0.979	348	61	410			1
ļ	553	0.394	295	49	347	į .		
	552	0.868	494	76 50	570	1288	242	1524
	551	0.973	151	56 50	197 215	1200	242	1024
9.	554	0.894	158	56 60	288			1
1	553	0.147	227	00	, 200			

TABLE II. (continued).

		Mean			Area of	W	ole for the d	ay.
Date	Group	distance from centre, radius=1.	Area of Penumbra	Area of Umbra.	whole Spot	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot.
1864.			226	113	340	611	229	843
Apřil 9. 11.	552 554	0.973 0.647	127	44	171 249	318	101	420
	553	0.289	191	57 23	116	1		353
12.	554	0.684 0.515	188	49	237	280	72	333
13.	553 554	0.396	59	13 34	73 159	183	47	233
	553	0.159	124	18	82		00	212
14.	554	0·370 0·344	112	18	130	176	36	212
15.		0.460	61	14 29	75 247	1		! .
•	553	0.952	¹ 219 27	29 21	49			462
	555 556	0.634		91	91	307	155	1
18		0.989	183	91 29	275 126	279	120	401
	556		96 61	33	95	61	33 24	95 93
19			68	24	93	68 60	8	69
20 21		0.238	60	8 12	1 69 59	46	1.2	59
22	556	0.021	46 13	8	21	13	8	21 27
23			21	5	27	21	5	1
25 26	1.	1			,	1	1	
29). }	pot	58	9	67		33	163
May 3	3. 55 55		73	24	98	131	1 30	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
١ .	5. 55	0.772	1 80 40	27 27	1 67	,	2-	286
	55		98	14	112	218	68	200
1	6. 55	- 000	50		50 79			
3	55	8 0 309	70 43	8	52	163	16	181
1	7. 56		215	46	262			
1	7. 56		130	21 15	151 77	406	. 82	490
1	5.	7 0.938	61	9	42		. 22	126
1	0. 5	50 0·442 58 0.756	71	13	, 84 , 31	104	22	
1 1		30 0.356	22	9 70	218	170	79	249
1	1 .	61 0-87. 60 0-493		4	14		122	557
		60 0.493 61 0.729	425	118	543 711		1 22	
1	14. 5	61 0.54		106 17	119		123	830
1		60 0.66 62 0.97	1	82	203			1
		61 0.34	6 764	208	97:		318	1347
	5	60 0.79		28	1			1
l l		62 0·45 61 0·17		, 150	950		233	1230
		660 0.93	1 118	71				1
	17.	62 0-29		1 174		6		2 1306
		561 0-20 560 0-99	- 1	122	12	2 943	36:	2 2300
		562 0.26	66 220	88			3 23	9 1149
i	1	561 0.38		151	2 26	6		
1	19.	563 0.95 562 0.45	1 -00	98	36		6 29	0 1295
,	1	561 0.5			0 66	100		

TABLE II. (continued).

Date.	Group.	Mean distance from	Area of	Area of	Area of	W	hole for the d	lay.
		centre, radius=1.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot.
1864.	563	0.070						
May 20.	564	0.878 0.426	87 18	35	122			1
	562	0.638	349	18 82	37 433			
	561	0.756	630	130	760	1084	265	1352
24.	564	0.920	316	43	359	316	43	359
27.	566	0.969	176	35	211			1
	565	0.479	131	24	155	307	59	366
28.	566	0.888	139	28	168			
-00	565	0.642	111	77	188	250	105	356
30.	570	0.979	123	<u>::</u>	123			1
	569 568	0.941	223	74	298			
	566	0.601	1390 95	457 37	1849	t B		
	567	0.883	81	27	108	1912	595	2510
June 4.	571		105	33	138	1322	030	. 2010
0	568	0.282	894	332	1227			
	570		145	31	177			
	569	0.245	188	35	223			
	566	0.638	99	33	133	1431	464	1898
7.	572	0.638	311	55	366	•		Į.
	571	0.256	237	22	259			1
	568	0.506	993	196	1189	i i	i	
	570	: 0.346	31	16	31	1		
	569 566	0.649	144	16	161	10==	303	2180
8.	572	, , ,	159	23	224	1875	303	2180
٥.	571	0.372	216	18	234	i		1
	568	0.692	833	236	1070	i		1
	569	0.809	130	29	159	1379	306	1687
10.	573	0.957	14	43	58	1		1
	572	0.294	178	40	218			!
	571	0.952	116		116		j	į
	568	0.936	547	. 320	867	Ì		
	563	0.979	61*		61	915	403	1320
11.	573	0.888	111	. 46	158	1		ł
	572	0.420	141	37	178		389	917
13.	568	0.990 0.134	275 107	306 47	154	527	389	917
10.	573 574	0.484	189	52	243			1
	572	0.780	135	40	175	431	139	572
14.	574	0.296	106	17	124	1		i
	573	0.291	66	31	97	•		
	572	0.888	149	37	187	321	85	408
15.	575	0.979		205	205	i		
	573	0.511	78	19	99	5		
	574	0.269	190	96	287	1 200		200
- 0	572	0.984		245	245	268	565	836
16.	575	0.915	324	157	482 126			
	574	0.672 0.619	91 384	34 119	503	799	310	1111
17.	573 575	0.807	493	231	725	133	010	1 1111
1.7.	574	0.507	117	19	135			
	573	0.312	228	89	317	838	339	1177
18.	575	0.672	406	136	543			1
-0.	573	0.915	303	94	397	709	230	940
20.	575	0.307	416	106	523	416	106	523

TABLE II. (continued).

		Mean distance from	Area of	Area of	Area of	W	hole for the d	ay.
Date.	Group.	centre,	Penumbra.	Umbra.	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot.
1864.					408	405	82	487
une 21.	575	0.215	405	82	487	449	114	563
23.	575	0.457	449	114	563	416	111	527
24.	575	0.645	416	111	527	410		,
30.	578	0.990	367	91	459			*
	577	0.796	42	28	70	,		:
	576	0.247	39	17	56	471	147	620
	575	0.937	23	11	35 104	85	19	104
July 1.	577	0.457	85	19	186		-5	
2.	578	0.942	148	37	161	,		
	577	0.645	133	27	60	302	102	407
	576	0.134	21	38	336	1		•
4.	579	0.990	244	91	123			
	578	0.688	92	29	51			
	577	0.242	43	8	28	398	137	538
	576	0.457	19	9	544	1000		*
5.	579	0.899	417	126	131			
	578	0.538	111	20	77	596	154	759
	577	0.150	68	8	598	0.50		•
6.	579	0.753	494	104	142	1		
	578	0.371	110	32	40			
	577	0.296	35	4	48	671	156	828
	576	0.845	32	16		0/1		
7.	579	0.619	382	97	470 102			
	578	0.296	75	26	141	540	182	713
	576	0.937	83	59	1653	, 010		-
9.	582	0.990	826	826		1		
	581	0.420	296	103	398 268			
	579	0.258	211	57		1398	1006	2404
	578	0.532	65	20	85 1439	1000		
11.		0.829	1226	212		1		
	581	0.145	270	34	305			:
	579	0.269	225	70	295 76	1781	331	2115
	578	0.834	60	15	1278	1701		
13		0.430	1071	206	38	1		
	581	0.468	24	14	480	1496	299	1796
	579	0.667	401	79		1930	, ~~~	,
14		0.215	487	117	605			
į	582	0.350	556	117	674 22		*	1
	581	0.645	16	5		1668	. 369	2040
1	579	0.807	609	130	739	1000		
15		0.172	566	167	736			
;	582	0.183	633	134	767	1697	478	2180
Į.	579	0.937	498	177	677	1037	., .	
16		0.296	566	129	695			
i i	582	0.118	377	89	467	1922	462	2386
1	579	0.990	979	244	1224	1922	***	1
19		0.850	353	96	450	629	163	794
:	582	0.775	276	67	344	029	100	
20	. 583	0.937	320	107	427	544	163	708
1	582	0.888	224	56	281	544	100	, , ,
21		0.990	336		336		1	
	582	0.979	328	61	389	710	73	787
ĺ	584	0.942	49	12	62	713	10	1
2		0.405	23	18	41	1	29	75
	584	0.677	23	11	34	46	, 29	1
9	5. No sp			1	1	ŧ	+	

TABLE II. (continued).

Date.	Group.	Mean distance from	Area of	Area of	Area of	w	hole for the d	lay.
Date.	Olvap.	centre, radius = 1.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot
1864.	585	0.366	4-	10	Co			
July 26.	584	0.350	45	18	63			7.40
97	585	0.581	72	13 36	85	117	31	148
27.	584	0.446	93	18	130	222		007
29.	585	0.877	135 95	26	151 122	228	54	281
29.	584	0.715	55	12		150	00	100
4 1	586	0.334	81	22	67 103	150	38	189
Aug. 1.	587	0.915	282	94	376	363	116	470
2.	586	0.366	41	9	49	303	110	479
٠.,	587	0.785	241	41	282	282	50	331
4.	587	0.452	152	28	181	285	50	931
7.	588	0.715	164	36	201	316	64	382
5.	589	0.979	143	41	184	310	04	302
•	587	0.269	88	17	105			1
	588	0.829	98	15	114	329	73	403
6.	590	0.979	352	123	475	0.23	70	100
•	589	0.888	75	37	111			
	587	0.038	76	21	97	l i		
	588	0.936	83		83	586	181	766
8.	590	0.781	697	135	832	000	101	
	501	0.856	115	41	156			1
	589	0.615	183	$\hat{64}$	248			
:	592	0.471	81	19	100			
	587	0.455	70	14	85	1146	273	1421
10.		0.411	661	130	791	11.10	2,0	
101	591	0.588	378	120	500			
	589	0.321	427	157	586			
	593	0.203	34	13	47			i
	592	0.776	365	135	500			i
1	589	0.803	35	21	56	1900	576	2480
11.	590	0.203	675	117	792			
	591	0.428	488	98	587			1
	589	0.288	704	129	833			
	592	0.883	408	90	499			
	593	0.411	23		23	2298	434	2734
12.	590	0.107	440	175	616			
	591	0.294	677	191	869			1
	589	0.428	1076	235	1311			i
	592	0.974	378	151	529	2571	752	3325
13.	590	0.294	632	96	729		-	1
	591	0.358	1226	195	1422	1		1
	589	0.588	1406	332	1739			
	593	0.856	33	8	41	3297	631	3931
15.	590	0.653	541	113	654			1
	591	0.642	594	122	717			1
	589	0.856	1041	189	1231			
	593	0.893	56	9	65	2232	433	2667
19.	595	0.107	71	17	89	71	17	89
20.	595	0.374	133	9	142	133	9	142
21.	1			-	1			1
25.	No spe	ots.						1
26.	1	1						
30.	597	0.776	114	54	168			
	596	0.139	94	51	146	208	105	314
Sept. 1.	597	0.471	139	28	168			!
•	596	0.513	99	34	133	238	62	301

TABLE II. (continued).

T		Mean	Aren of	Area of	Area of	W	hole for the d	lay.
Date.	Group.	distance from centre, radius = 1.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot
1864.			201	68	295			
Sept. 3.	599	0.925	227	27	147	1		
•	597	0.385	119	27	93	414	118	535
-	596	0.829	68	44	244			
5.	599	0.638	199	33	121	288	77	365
	597	0.659	89 115	23	138			
15.	601	0.386	205	102	307	320	125	445
	600	0.978	152	21	174	1		
17.	602	0.920 0.159	25	0	25	177	21	199
	601	0.139	42	14	56			
19.	602 601	0.460	14	19	33	56	33	89
01	602	0.064	25	8	34	25	8	34
21.	602	0.281	13		13	13	0	13
22. 23.	No spot	0 ~01				-	20	90
23. 24.	604 '	0.963	61	30	90	61	30	90
24. 27.	604	0.558	15	10	25	1	96	82
21.	603	0.316	31	26	57	46	36 10	45
28.	603	0.529	35	10	45	35	10	7.5
29.	605	0.968	49	49	98		49	108
~3.	603	0.631	10		10	59 51	25	76
30.	605	0.868	51	25	76	51	20	,,,
Oct. 1.	606	0.968	148	49	196	172	73	245
004	605	0.721	24	24	49	1/2	10	
3.	606	0.762	105	46	151 32	128	55	183
	605	0.378	23	9		120	0.5	
4.	606	0.579	124	20	145	167	28	196
	605	0.147	43	8	51 115	10,		
5.	606	0.394	92	23	82	138	59	197
	605	0.378	46	36	122	100		
6.	606	0.242	104	17 25	65	144	42	187
	605	0.536	40	17	75	1		
7.		0.295	57	19	26	63	36	101
	605	0.757	6	11	34			į
8.		0.684	23	23	120		1	į
	606	0.405	97	6	6	120	40	160
	605	0.762	•••	8	13			
. 10.		0.247	92	19	112	96	27	125
	606	0.762	95	26	122	95	26	122
12.		0.875	118	54	172	118	54	172
15.		0.365	119	9	29	19	9	29
18.		0.902	19	13	33	19	13	33
19		0.625	92	43	136	92	43	136
21		0.849	24	8	32		1	
22	612	0.912	135	52	188			ł
	611	0.849	224	56	281		160	630
1	610	0.286	84	44	129	467	. 100	030
24		0.495	83	9	93		1	İ
24	612	0.641	99	27	127		1	
	611	0.516	133	44	178	nón	112	436
	610	0.635	5	32	38	320	112	400
28		0.843	101	39	140			
1 20	612	0.391	203	55	258	443	138	579
	611	0.505	137	44	181	441	198	013
3	1. 616	0.985	73	49	122		ļ	
1	615	0.964	277	77	355		1	1

Date.	Group.	Mean distance from centre.	Area of Penumbra,	Area of Umbra.	Area of		Whole for the	day.
		centre, radius=1.	1 chambra.	Umbra.	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot,
1864.						•	1	-
Oct. 31.	614	0.312	290	89	380			
	612	0.886	99	18	117	739	233	974
Nov. 4.	616 615	0.989	1143	190	1334		1	1
	614	0.589	521	99	621			
14.	618	0·443 0·964	122	28	151	1786	317	2106
13.	617	0.208	16	16	32			
	616	0.985	17 ·	13	30			
18.	620	0.713	18	196 12	196	33	225	255
	619	0.281	48	8	30			
	618	0.208	164	26	57 191	200	100	
22.	620	0.291	22	13	35	230	46	278
	621	0.381	124	36	161			
	619	0.755	39	6	45		l	
	618	0.812	137	50	188	322	105	429
25.	624	0.849	273	120	393	02.0	100	429
	623	0.771	284	79	364			
	622	0.511	368	118	486		l	
	621	0.812	181	50 .	231	1106	367	1473
29.	626	0.938	37	65	37			
	625 624	0.922	196		261		l	
	623	0·182 0·218	393	64	458			
	622	0.495	178 1023	56	235			
Dec. 1.	626	0.713	1023	230 12	1254	1827	415	2245
Dec. 1.	625	0.682	121	30	18 150			
	624	0.427	361	61	423			
	623	0.521	188	53	243		1	
	622	0.823	743	162	905	1419	318	1790
2.	626	0.469	14	4	19	1419	318	1739
	625	0.485	106	34	140			1 1
i	624	0.615	210	81	291			
1	623	0.703	204	42	247			
1	622	0.938	809	148	959	1343	309	1656
5.	627	0.755	13	6	19			1000
1	625	0.270	101	35	135			1
1	624	0.985	612	343	956			
9.	623	0.995	366	163	529	1092	547	1639
19.	628 629	0.912	94	31	124	94	31	124
20.	631	0.835	852	210	1062	852	210	1062
1865.	629	0.990 0.954	1061	703	703			
an. 4.	633	0.511	1061 118	207 44	1268	1061	910	1971
1.	632	0.886	27	9	163 36	345		200
7.	634	0.407	59	9	69	145	53	199
11	633	0.745	75	12	88	134	21	7.7
9.	635	0.739	19	6	25	101	21	157
0.	634	0.729	56	18	74	i	ļ	-
1	633	0.417	4	14	18	79	38	117
13.	636	0.609	101	42	143		- 1	111
1	635	0.286	240	84	325	341	126	468
23.	643	0.954	124	41	164			100
	641	0.615	59	27	86	Į	1	1
	640	0.172	68	43	111	ļ	1	1
	642	0.703	150	102	253			1
	639	0.140	81	43	124	!	1	- 1

TABLE II. (continued).

Date.	Group.	Mean distance from	Area of	Area of	Area of	w	hole for the d	ay.
Date.	Group.	centre, radius=1.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot
1865.		•						
Jan. 23.	638	0.260	145	92	237			
	637	0.843	1055	296	1352	1682	644	2327
Feb. 3.	646	0.391	32	4	37			1
1	645	0.469	453	110	564			ĺ
1	644	0-120	102	25	128	1		
- 1	643 641	0.713 0.990	36 244	6 214	42 459	867	359	1230
9.	649	0.239	298	73	372	801	003	1230
3.	645	0.348	18	13	31	1		
	647	0.276	66	17	83	1		
	644	0.912	261	145	408	643	248	894
15.	649	0.391	203	64	268			1
	647	0.417	75	28	103	278	92	371
17.	649	0.859	156	82	239			1
	647 •	0.912	62	10	73	218	92	312
25.	650	0.920	34	79	113	1		ł
1	651	0.252	26	••••	26	60	79	139
28.	651	0.826	38	15	, 53			
-	652	0.568	317	.83	400			
	653	0 973	56	18	75	411	116	528
Mar. 1.	653	0.868	85	25	110			ł
	652	0.726	237	87	324		100	447
	651	0.947	*****	13	13	322	125	447
3.	$653 \\ 652$	0.595	294	47	34.5	381	119	501
7.	653	0.957	87	72	159	220	98	319
	654	0.499	220 18	98 4	319 23	220	90	319
8.	653	0.631	229	54	284	247	58	307
9.	654	0.499	39	9	49	~~,	•	, 00,
3.	653	0.778	209	40	250	248	49	299
13.	655	0 236	95	21	117	~		1 200
- 1	657	0.195	51	26	77			
1	656	0 332	22	13	36	168	60	230
17.	656	0.931	225	••••	225			
	655	0.736	199	62	262	424	62	487
20.	656	0.894	102	46	149	102	46	149
21.	656	0 968 '	32	65	98	32	65	98
22.	660	0.778	20	27	47			
	659	0.705	241	120	361			,
1	658	0.384	124	87	212			1
	661	0.563	41	•••••	41	426	234	661
23.	662	0.894	75	•••••	75	75	******	75
24.	662	0.842	7	23	31	7	23	31
27.	$\frac{663}{663}$	0 789	553	227	781	553	227	781
28. 30.	663	0.657		169	784	615	169	784
31.	663	0.378 0.342	473	170 203	644 701	473	170 203	644 701
April 1.	663	0.431	498 408	108	517	498 408	108	517
3.	663	0.730	275	62	337	275	62	337
4.	663	0.893	243	93	337	243	93	337
6.	663	0.990	244	93 91	336	244	91	336
8.	664	0.476	72	28	100	72	28	100
10.	665	0.973	18	56	75	•~		1
	664	0.831	76	22	98	94	78	173
11.	665	0.873	26	17	43		• -	
i	664	0.936	23	35	59	49	52	102

TABLE II. (continued).

Date.	Group.	Mean distance from	Area of	Area of	Area of	W	bole for the	day.
		centre, radius=1.	Penumbrā.	Umbra,	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot.
1865.								-
Apr. 12.	665	0.730	6	12	18	6	12	18
13.	665	0.651	•••••	11	11		-	
70	666 667	0.915	100	20 36	20		31	31
20.	668	0·577 0·265	109 70	35	145	170		250
21.	667	0.714	245 *	49	105 294	179	71	250
~	668	0.265	114		114		1	
	669	0.895	46	9	56	405	. 58	464
24.	670	0.688	5	17	23		,	100
	668	0.529	25		25		į	
	667	0.990	91	30	121	121	47	169
25.	670	0.559	41	20	61	41	20	61
26.	670	0.372	46	4	50	46	4	50
27.	670	0.266	39	8	48		- **	
137	671	0.181	34	8	43	73	16	91
May 2.	673	0.622	43	16	59			
	672 674	0.670 0.559	91	40 5	131			
	671	0.814	******	7	7	134	68	203
3.	673	0.442	127	42	170	101	i	202
5.	672	0.665	57	îĩ	68	184	53	238
5.	676	0.990	91		91	1 -0-	,	1 200
	675	0.883	81	27	108			
1	673	0.287	93	13	106	1		
	672	0.234	่ย		8	273	. 40	313
6.	676	0.851	32	32	64			
	675	0.735	131	43	175		(
	673	0.426	51	9	61		•	
	673	0.521	18	*****	18	232	84	318
8.	676	0.469	14	4	19			
	675	0.266	39	6	39 61	53	4	58
9.		0·719 0·261	55 26	0	26			:
1	676 675	0.181	25	12	38	106	18	125
12.	0-	0.453	95	56	152	100	, 10	120
1	679	0.293	26	*****	26	121	56	178
13.	678	0.654	202	56	259			
	679	0.426	23	4	28	225	60	287
18.	680	0.835	312	54	366	312	54	366
19.	680	0.947	431	52	483			
1 1	681	0.638	71	16	88	502	68	571
22.	681	0.985	612	147	760	612	147	760
23.	No spo	ts.	1		1			
24. 25.	682	,	183	428	612			
20.	683	0.990	61	91	153	244	519	765
26.	682	0.930	534	83	617	~	013	100
~0.	683	0.941	161	62	223	695	145	840
27.	682	0.825	364	60	426			
	683	0.830	145	30	174	509	90	600
29.	682	0.495	363	112	476			1
	683	0.479	62	29	91	425	141	567
30.	682	0.307	308	66	375			
	683	0.301	93	8	102	401	74	477
31.	682	0.984	98	49	147	ł		
; 1	683	0.161	60	12 '	73	1		1

TABLE II. (continued).

1		Mean			Area of	W	hole for the d	ay.
Date.	Group.	distance from centre, radius = 1.	Area of Penumbra.	Area of Umbra.	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot.
1865.	····				536	616	138	756
May 31.	682	0.177	458	77	29	1		
June 5.	685	0.958	29		46			
	684	0.123	30	17	345	330	90	420
1	682	0.915	271	73				
6.	686	0.985		710	710	392	759	1151
-	682	0.985	39≋	49	441	552	103	
7.	686	0.453	309	90	401	415	128	546
1	687	0.899	106	38	145	410		
8.	686	0.780	636	135	771	652	140	793
0.	687	0.645	16	5	22	052	140	,,,,
9.	686	0.592	626	131	758	CEE	131	787
3.	687	0.807	29		29	655	101	1
10	686	0.160	431	129	560	105	127	572
12.	687	0.107	4	8	12	435	137	482
		0.321	400	81	482	400	81	342
13.	686	0.588	252	88	342	252	88	342
14.	686	1		1			1	E =
	No spot.	0.963	16	49	65	16	49	65
23.	689		1	1			1	
July 3.	No spot			91	91		91	91
4.	690	0.990	24	24	49	24	24	49
5.	690	0.942		16	50			
7.	690	0.661	33	4	24	52	20	74
	691	0.516	19	8	29			1
10.	690	0.092	21		21			1
	691	0.081	21		148	149	48	198
	692	0.780	107	40	22	1		1
11.	690	0.269	13	8		1		1
	691	0.280	17		17	162	34	199
	692	0.603	132	26	160	102	-	
12.	690	0.495	14	4	19			1
1	691	0.645	16	5	22	145	27	174
	692	0.393	115	18	133	143	~ .	-,-
14.		0.968	16	16	32	110	37	156
17.	692	0.172	103	21	124	119		112
1.5		0.350	94	18	112	94	18 40	235
15. 20.		0.350	194	40	235	194	8	51
		0.231	43	8	51	43	16	63
27		0.102	46	16	63	46	16	03
28		0.215	17	8	26	1	1	1
29		0.242	21	17	39	1	1	100
l	695	0.296	31	4	35	69	29	100
١	696	0.850	16	8	24	1		
Aug. 3	698	0.813	754	275	1029	1		
	697	0.813	48	13	62			,
1	695	0.834	60		60	878	296	1175
	696		214	122	336		ſ	1
7		0.990	5	16	21		1	
	699	0.615	47	4	51	266	142	408
	698		115	57	173	1		1
9	700	0.856		9	26		1	1
1	699		18	9	23	147	75	222
1	698		14	53	206	1		
10	700	0.695	153		14		١.	1
	699	0.802	7	7	39	186	73	259
	698	0.946	26	13	153	126	27	153
14	2. 700	0.342	126	27	34	26	8	34
	4. 700		26	8	34	1 20		

TABLE II. (continued).

Date.	Group.	Mean distance from centre,	Area of Penumbra,	Area of Umbra.	Area of	W	hole for the	lay.
		radius=1.	2 countries	Cinora.	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spo
1865.								-
Aug. 16.	701	0.277	17	8	26	17	8	26
17.	702	0-936	47		47	"	Ŭ	~0
10	701 702	0.661	33	16	50	80	16	97
18.	702	0.794		7	7	1		
21.	703	0.508	9	9	19	9	16	26
22.	703	0.873 0.767	535	95	632	535	95	632
24.	703	0.407	497	72	569	497 466	72	569
26.	703	0.555	466	97	563	466	97	563
29.	703	0.699	467 224	97	565	467	97	565
~J.	704	0.603	85	41	265			1
30.	704	0.423	169	32	116	209	73	381
	703	0.847	88	42 32	211 120			1
Sept. 1.	704	0.026	315	59		257	74	331
-1/	703	0.984	98	əy	374	410		
2.	704	0.265	303	57	98 360	413	59	472
4.	704	0.661	367	57 124	360 491	303	57	360
5.	704	0.831	525	83	609	367	124	491
6.	704	0.925	467	79	547	525 467	83	609
7.	704	0.990	428	122	550	428	79	547
8.	1	- 1		1~~	550	428	122	550
9.	No spot	s.			-	l		
13.	705	0.952	124		124	124		104
14.	705	0.873	35		35	35	•••••	124
15.	705	0.725	49	42	91	49	42	35 91
16.	705	0.579	83	36	119	83	36	119
18.	705	0.684	46	17	63	00	50	119
	706	0.284	35	17	52	81	34	115
19.	705	0.752	32	6	39	- 1		110
	706	0.826	68	22	91	100	28	130
20.	705	0.894	28	9	37	1		200
٠,	706	0.920	141	32	174	169	41	211
22. 23.	707	0.984	1398	269	1668	1398	269	1668
25.	707	0.926	1444	479	1924	1444	479	1924
26.	707 707	0.611	881	178	1059	881	178	1059
27.	707	0·421 0·184	709	141	850	709	141	850
28.	707	0.037	503	134	637	503	134	637
30.	707	0.458	400 353	123	523	400	123	523
	711	0.405	46	114	468			
et. 2.	707	0.815	423	9	55	399	123	523
	712	0.874	61	26	534			-
3.	707	0.936	379	71	87	484	137	621
	712	0.894	379	28	451 65	176	00	<u>.</u>
4.	707	0.990	336	214	550	416	99	516
1	712	0.736	62	25	87	398	200	a
5.	712	0.568	52	10	62	52 52	239	637
6.	712	0.384	41	13	55	41	10 13	`62
7.	712	0.158	34	12	47		10	55
	713	0.990	367		367	401	12	414
10.	713	0.729	993	275	1268	993	275	414 1268
11.	713	0.563	1074	354	1428	1074	354	1428
12.	713	0.412	1122	246	1369			1428
	714	0.833	83	30	114	1205	276	1483
13.	713	0.328	1118	288	1407			1209
f	714	0.677	23	. 5	29	1141	293	1436

TABLE II. (continued).

T	1	Mean		Area of	Area of	Who	ole for the da	у.
Date.	Group.	distance from centre, 'radius=1.	Area of Penumbra.	Umbra.	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot.
1865.		0.000	1104	273	1378		_	1404
et. 17.	713	0.833	8	17	26	1112	290	1404 98
	714	0.296 0.985		98	98		98	90
20.	713	0.399						
24.	*		1			1		1
27.	No spo	ts.	! !			1		1
28. Nov. 2.		1	i 1			1	33	33
Yov. 2.	715	0.990		33	33	261	102	363
4.	715	0.928	261	102	363	201	100	
6.	715	0.317	147	44	192	160	48	210
0.	716	0.370	13	. 4	18	100	40	
13.	715	0.812	217	50	267	1		l
	717	0.490	4		302	496	77	573
	718	0.954	275	27	302 428	130	• •	
15.	715	0.990	336	91	271	564	133	699
	718	0.703	228	42	452	452		452
22.	719	0.974	452		485	391	93	485
23.	719	0.869	391	93	674	593	79	674
24.	719	0.719	593	79	414	1		
Dec. 2.		0.922	337	76 48	218			
	720	0.286	168	33	123	595	157	755
	721	0.859	90	30	1			
13.		1						
14.		oots.				1		
19.		0.781	230	195	426	-410	208	478
20	722	0.948	39	13	52	269	74	743
30		0.729	668	74	743	668	14	1
1866.	1~=	0 1 2 3	1				1	
Jan. 1	724	0.365	395	63	460	625	121	749
Jan. 1	725	0.338	230	58	289	020	1	
1 8		0.270	252	44	296			
1	725	0.156	206	17	223	629	134	764
	726	0.985	171	73	245 152	0~3	1	
	4. 724	0.453	128	23			1	
	725	0.391	138	41	179	343	93	437
	726		77	29	460	0.0		
	7. 724	0.912	292	166	62		1	
1	725	0.912	52	10	13	344	189	535
	726	0.391		122	856			1
	8. 724	0.990	734	1	73		1	
	723		73		9		1	2000
	726		9	275	1101	1642	397	2039
	727		826	173	921	747	173	921
1	9. 72	7 0.938		144	842			1424
1 :	15. 72			174	1		318	1424
	72			131	1 000			1
1	19. 72			70	1	. 1		1291
1	72				1		225	1291
	72						1	477
	23. 72			1	28	384	91	0.00
	72				378		12	
	24. 75				5 410		1	
1	29. 7				66		9	49
1		30 0·50 29 '0·7≥			1 * 10	3 400	9	-

TABLE II. (continued).

- I		2.5						
Date.	Group.	Mean distance from centre,	Area of Penumbra.	Aren of Umbra.	Area of whole Spot.	w	hole for the d	ay.
		radius=1.				Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot
1866.					-			
Feb. 5.	731	0.609	197	48	245			1
	732	0.938	447	161	610	644	209	855
6.	732	0.817	408	74	482		~ 55	
	731	0.781	189	67	256	597	141 *	738
8.	732	0.495	329	78	407		*	
	731	0.985	294	73	367	623	151	774
13.	$735 \\ 734$	0.917	690	303	995			İ
;	732	0.693	171 265	35 76	206	1100		1710
18.	735	0.260	1428	330	342 1758	1126	414	1543
10.	734	0.521	138	24	163	1566	354	1921
19.	735	0.365	1559	405	1964	1300	334	1921
150	734	0.703	114	24	138	1673	429	2102
20.	735	0.573	1466	478	1944			1
i	734	0.859	139	66	206	1605	544	2150
21.	735	0.703	1567	536	2104	1		
	734	0.938		161	161	1567	697	2265
23.	735	0.954	1186	330	1516	1186	330	1516
24.	735	0.990	795	275	1071	795	275	1071
26.,	736	0.631	54 71	21	75	54	21	75
Mar. 2. 6.	$\begin{array}{c} 737 \\ 738 \end{array}$	0.684	208	32 40	104 250	71 208	32 40	104
7.	735	0.552	192	55	247	192	55	250 247
8.	738	0.384	192	37	231	192	37	231
9.	738	0.263	145	30	176	145	30	176
12.	738	0.647	177	38	216			1,0
	739	0.894	281	102	384	458	140	600
14.	739	0.641	127	38	166			
	738	0.920	141	65	207	268	103	373
22.	740	0.794	247	42	290	- 1		
	739	0.555	71	30	102	318	72	392
23.	740	0.608	53	21	74			• • • •
	739	0.714	85	24	110	138	45	184
24.	741 740	0.540 0.449	50 143	15 70	65 214	1		ĺ
:	739	0.858	98	24	123	291	109	402
27.	741	0.132	98	43	141	~91	103	102
~/.	740	0.476	177	96	274	273	139	413
29.	741	0.847	88	56	144	88	56	144
30.	741	0.925	4.4	22	68	44	22	68
Apr. 3.	742	0.624	119	32	152	119	32	152
5.	742	0.307	57	31	89	57	31	89
6.	743	0.677	29	11	40	2.		
_	742	0.265	35	4	39	64	15	79
12.	745	0.925	316	44	363	250	Co	444
!	744	0.465	62	19	81	378	63	444
14.	745	0.692	182	64	247	186	64	251
16	744	0.026	174	41	225	174	41	225
16.	745	0.373	174	32	139	106	32	139
18.	745	0·415 0·585	110	31	141	110	31	141
20.	745	0.383	103	18	122	103	18	122
21.	745	0.856	49	16	66	49	16	66
	746	0.729	112	56	168	112	56	168
24.	746	0.559	235	56	292	235	56	292
	746	0.319	238	45	283	238	45	283

MDCCCLXX.

TABLE II. (continued).

	i	1	Mean			Area of	Wh	nole for the day	y.
Date.	G	roup.	distance from centre.	Area of Penumbra,	Area of Umbra.	whole Spot.	Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot.
1866.	-					154	129	25	154
Apr. 26		746	0.160	129	25	131	82	47	131
27		746	0.240	82	47	83	83		83
30		746	0.931	83	••••	00	!	**	
	2.			1					1
	3.	*							
		No spot	s.						
	5.	1						23	61
	(-)	748	0.495	37	23	61	37	23	0.1
	3.	748	0.251	105	22	127		47	202
,	€.	749	0.535	50	25	75	155	47	1 202
1	.	748	0.134	17	8	25		57	137
1	0-	749	0.337	63	49	112	80	52	259
	1.	749	0.267	206	52	259	206	90	456
		749	0.187	364	90	456	364	122	412
	2. 5.	749	0.877	289	122	412	289	92	448
	6.	749	0.963	355	92	448	355	92	1
	7.	749	0.974	170	18	189	3*3	52	324
	4.	750	0.925	102	34	135	272	35	169
	8.	750	0.802	133	35	169	133	21	54
	9.	750	0.631	32	21	54	32	21	
	1.	751	0.888	149	37	187	102	37	231
z	1.	750	0.267	44		44	193	33	158
6	2.	751	0.769	125	33	158	125	31	; 161
	3.	751	0.581	130	31	161	130	26	155
	25.	751	0.285	129	26	155	129	12	59
	26.	751	0.107	46	12	59	46	30	132
	28.	751	0.565	102	30	132	102	25	137
	29.	751	0.726	112	25	137	112	43	130
	30.	751	0.372	87	43	130	87	143	738
	1.	752	0.979	594	143	738	594	98	496
June	2.	752	0.861	396	98	496	396 226	59	285
1	6.	752	0.107	226	59	285		56	290
	23.	755	0.888	233	56	290	233	184	478
	26.	755	0.963	293	184	478	293	244	244
	27.	755	0.990		244	244			
	28.	756	0.764	39	19	59	137	68	207
	-0.	757	0.968	98	49	: 148	: 13/	1	1
	30.	756	0.377	92	27	119	254	83	337
	-	757	0.737	162	56	218	, 204		
July	2.	756	0.134	38	12	51	192	34	228
July		757	0.366	154	22	177	143	13	156
ļ	4.	757	0.188	143	13	156 129	115	13	129
1	5.	757	0.388	115	13	129	36	20	57
i	6.	757	0.581	36	20	46	26	19	46
1	7.	757	0.764	26	19	- 0	37	18	56
1	9.	757	0.973	37	18	61	61		61
i	10.	757	0.990	61			124	37	161
	12.	758	0.942	124	37		1	22	
	13.	758	0.834	159	22			35	
1	16.	758	0.296	120	33			28	
1	18.	758	0.667	102	28			21	155
1	20.	758	0.801	133	2	1 100			
	21.	1 No.	spots.		1	1			
1	30.	1.3	- 1		4.	5 217	171	45	
Au	g. 9.	759						31	22
1	10,	759	0.588	189	9	- ~~`			

TABLE II. (continued).

	i					7		
Date.	Group.	Mean distance from centre,	Area of Penumbra,	Area of Umbra.	Area of whole Spot.	w	hole for the d	lay.
		radius=1.				Penumbra.	Umbra.	Whole Spot
1866.	***							
Aug. 11.	759	0.732	137	31	168	137	31	168
16.	760 760	0.588	163	67	231	163	67	231
17. 18.	760	0.401	130	55	186	130	55	186
20.	760	0.197	151	43	194	151	43 *	194
30.	761	0.348	85	49	135	85	49	135
31.	761	0.265 0.449	308	96	404	308	96	404
Sept. 1.	761	0.635	353	80	434	353	80	434
3.	761	0.925	323 430	54	377	323	54	377
5.		0 525	430	113	534	430	113	534
10.	ì	i 1				į		
11.	1		ĺ		1	į		
13.	No spo	ts.	į		!			
14.	1		į					
15.			1					
17.) !		i					
21.	762	0.810	246	50	297	246	-0	20.7
24.	762	0.265	242	44	286	240	50 44	297
25.	762	0.132	236	60	296	236	60	286 296
27.	762	0.264	184 :	39	224	184	39	296 224
28.	762	0.635	224	32	257	224	32	257
Oct. 10.	763	0.952		34	34		34	34
	So spots.	i	1				UT	94
15.	764	0.868	102	34	136	102	34	136
16.	764	0.710	84	24	108	84	24	108
17.	764	0.552	25	20	45	1	~ 1	103
:	765	0.605	48	5	53			
!	766	0.963	139	77	215	212	102	313
19.	764	0.205	60	13	73 i		20.4	
0.4	766	0.684	127	23	150	187	36	223
24.	766	0.353	91	18	109	91	18	109
26.	766	0.730	118	25	143	118	25	143
28.	766	0.973	207	37	245			
31.	767	0.316	48	26	75	255	63	320
Nov. 2.;	767 767	0.433	103	9	112	103	9	112
4.	101	0.760	6	26	32	6	26	32
6.		1	į	1	:			
8.	No spots	. 1		!	,	, '		
14.	, res spec.	•		ŧ	i	ı	.	
17.		i		,	1		-	
19.	768	0.938	37	74	222		İ	
20.	768	0.807	36	50	112 86	37	74	112
	769	0.938	112	49	161	140	00	245
21.	768	0.661	45	39	84	148	99	247
1	769	0.797	42	49	91	87	88	177
25.	768	0.202	8	8	17	01	00	175
1	769	0.100	50	21	71	1		
	770	0.526	55	10	65	113	39	153
26.	769	0.208	91	21	113	91	21	113
27.	769	0.703	18	12	30	<i>3</i> -	~-	110
	770	0.469	57	14	72	75	26	102
28.	769	0.641	44	22	66	44	22	66
ec. 7.	- 1		1	i	,	i		00
14.	No spots.	1		1	,	1	ţ	1
19.	aro epois.		í	i		•		
28.								

Table III. (continued).—Heliographic Elements of Sun-spots observed at Kew Observatory during 1864, 1865, and 1866.

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No of Group in the Kew Catalogue	Distance from Centre	Angle of Position	Longitude from Node	Heho- graphical Longitude	Heho- grap'neal Lainude	Spot.
1004					3 -6	103 21	154 33	$-\hat{3} 1\hat{9}$	M.
1864. Ian. 24.	3624	23.494	519	0.723	256 13	103 21	153 29	- 4 1	n.
ан. 24.	3625	1	519	0.726	255 28	100 38	151 50	- 7 23	a.
	3626		520	0.631	243 10		152 24	- 7 26	Α.
	3627		520	0.642	243 17		150 29	_ 8 19	В.
	3628		, 520	0.670	244 1	99 17	150 25	- 8 25	, b.
	3629		520	0.694	244 58		149 36	- 6 59	c.
	3630		520	0.693	241 12	1	138 49	- 3 21	Р.
	363		521	0.577	253 19		140 5	- 3 37	Q.
	363		5.21	0.570	254 47	88 53	138 26	- 4 19	r.
	363		521	0.584	251 25	87 14	137 58	- 4 12	5.
	363		521	0.563	252 33	86 46	140 43	+20 26	S.
	363		522	0 692	258 54	89 31	143 52	+20 51	N.
	363		522	0.683	289 11	92 40	1	- 4 2	X.
	363		593	0.101	195 17	49 58	101 10	- 3 56	1
	363		523	0.093	194 13	56 13	101 25	- 4 17	ν.
	363		523	0.090	194 11	54 32	92 55	- 7 26	z.
	364		524	0.155	131 28	41 43		- 7 34	Z.
	364		524	0.151	130 44	42 58	94 10	-13 28	. Y".
			525	0.525	93 17	343 49	35 1	-13 57	Y'.
	364		525	0.533 .	93 33	344 10	35 92	-14 9	Ÿ.
	364		525	0.847	94 51	342 25	33 40	-15 2	$II \rightarrow II$
	364		526	0.888	92 19	3 1 33	12 45	-16 19	W 60*
	364		526	0.893	92 33	325 16	16 28	-16 36	W 1.
	36		5.26	0.895	94 0	325 43	16 55		I.
	364		526	0.901	94 11	325 49	1 17 1	-17 2 - 3 24	Ñ.
1	364			0.724	256 20	103 30	154 40		ъ.
1	36		519	0.727	255 29	102 20	153 30		
,	36.		520	0.630	243 26	100 37	151 47	- 7 26	
1	36		520	0.641	243 11	101 18	152 28	1 - 7 25	
1	36		520	0.671	244 10	99 24	150 34	$\frac{1}{-8} \frac{25}{39}$	
1	36		520	0.694	245 2	99 15	150 25		
	36		520	0.696	241 33	98 20	149 30	- 6 49	
1	36		521	0.579	253 24	87 31	138 41	- 3 22	,
1	36		521	0.571	254 46	88 55	140 5	- 3 39	
	36		521	0.584	251 28	87 3	138 13		
		38	521	0.565	252 36	86 44	137 54		
1		59	522	1 / 00	288 56	89 32			
		60 1	522	1 0 .	289 0				
1		61	523	1	195 16		101 11		
1		62	523	1	194 18				
		663 664	528		194 5			' I	
1		664	524		130 59				
ŧ		665	524		130 46				
		566	523	-0	93 28	344			
		667	528		93 34	344 1			
	1	568	52		94 57	342 3			
		669	520			321 3			-
		6 70 ,	52		1	325 1			
1		671 672	59					_	8 W
		672	52				1 17 1		
		673	1				9 154 2	!	0 N
		674 25.5	51			1 131 2			2 n
		675	52			7 129 2	9 151 4	~ .	5 a
		676	52				7 151 5	0 - 7 3	30 ¦ A
1	1 2	677	. 02	0 0 3 1	1	1	1		

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Tim of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue	Contro	Angle of			Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spe
1864.	-		-	-					_
Jan. 26	3678	25-239	520	0.953	249 4	128 17		1 0 1	į
	3679		520	0.966	250 0		150 30	- 8 22	B.
	3680		520	0.970	247 52	126 55	150 29	- 8 22	b.
	3681		521	0.859	254 34	116 38	149 8 138 51	- 6 53	e.
	3689		521	0.873	251 29	118 59	138 51	- 3 22	P.
	3683		521	0.890	253 46	117 1	139 14	- 3 42 - 4 22	Q
	3684		521	0.905	254 51	115 20	137 33	- 4 22	r. s.
	3685 3686		523 523	0.514	252 48	79 44	101 57	- 4 11	X
	3687		525	0.517	253 13	79 20	101 33	- 4 0	X.
	3688	1	525 525	0.473	94 17	13 5	35 18	-13 22	Y
	3689	1	525	0.428	94 53	13 27	35 40	-14 0	Y
	3690		525	0.495	94 10	11 46	33 59	-13 50	Y^2
	3691	1	525	0.542	92 41	9 58	32 11	-12 2	G.
	3692		525	0.545	92 56	8 13	30 26	-13 14	g¹.
	3693	1	525	0.588	97 12	9 34 9 30	31 47	-14 4	gº.
	3694	1	5:25	0.590	97 12	8 58	31 43	-13 3	H.
	3695	1	526	0.654	×9 33	350 36	31 11 12 49	-13 19	h.
	3696	0	526	0.659	89 47	354 0	16 13	-16 33: $-15 46$:	W.
	3697	25.552	519	0.965	254 33	132 29	154 29	- 3 32	M.
	3698		519	0.966	255 6	131 40	153 40	- 4 17	n.
	3699 3700	!	520	0.944	248 30	129 45	151 45	- 7 10	a.
	3701	1	520 520	0.947	250 0	129 45	151 45	- 7 33	A.
	3702		520	0.956 0.967	249 11	128 31	150 31	- 8 12	В.
	3703	1	520	0.978	249 57	128 25	159 25	- 8 20	b.
	3704		521	0.861	254 30	127 18 116 27	149 18	- 6 52	c.
	3705		521	0.875	251 23	119 19	138 27	- 3 16	Ρ.
	3706	:	521	0.865	253 49	117 14	141 19 139 14	- 3 49 '	Q.
1	3707	:	521	0.906	254 56	115 24	137 46	-420 -418	r.
f	3708		523	0.212	252 55	79 49	101 49	- 4 16	s. X.
;	3709		523	0.210	253 27	79 25	101 25	- 3 49	X.
į	$\frac{3710}{3711}$		525	0.475	94 28	13 15	35 15	-13 17	Yº.
	3712	1	525 525	0.426	94 56	13 43	35 43	-14 4	\mathbf{Y}^{1} .
i	3713		525	0.496	94 2	11 48	33 48	-13 30	Y^2 .
í	3714	1 :	525	0.241	95 17 92 44	10 10	32 10	-12 10	G.
- 1	3715	i i	525	0.240	92 44 92 57	8 36 9 50	30 36	-13 15	g^1
i	3716		525	0.586	97 13	10 0	31 50 32 0 4	-14 19	g.
į	3717	į	525	0.288	97 1	9 15	32 0 i	-13 26	H.
i	3718	i :	526	0.625	89 36	350 58	12 58	-13 20 $-16 30$	h. W.
28.	3719		526	0.656	89 42	354 15	16 15	-15 56	W.
20.	3720	27.526	523	0.843	251 17	107 49	101 47	- 4 43	X.
	3721		523	0.847	251 33	107 21	101 19	- 4 2	x.
- 1	3722 3723	1	525	0.142	179 6	42 14	36 12	-12 55	Yº.
	3723		525 525	0.123	165 3	42 1	35 59	-13 43	$\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}^{1}$.
i	3725	i i	. 1	0.159	166 19 158 23	39 17	33 15	-12 29	Yº.
	3726	1		0.188	110 12	39 13 37 10		-12 2	G.
1	3727	1		0.294	118 57	38 49		-13 10	g¹.
ALC: NO.	3728			0.238	120 11	37 51			g^2 .
	3729		525	0.593	114 33	38 2	00 - 1		Н.
	3730			0.299	96 0	19 19			w.
	3731	25.510		0.314	96 12	23 24			w.
- 1	3732 3733	27.540		0.845	252 23	108 7	101 53		X.
1	0/00		523	0.849	251 47	107 43	107 00 1	0 1	λ.

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitudo.	Spot.
1864.							, و		
Jan. 28.	3734	27.540	525	0.143	173 21	42 41	36 27	-12 53	Yº.
1	3735		525	0.151	166 14	41 58	35 44 33 2	-13 30 $-12 14$	Y1. Y2.
	$\frac{3736}{3737}$		525 525	0·157 0·161	167 35 158 29	39 16 39 23	33 <i>2</i> 33 9	-12 14	G.
	3738		525	0.186	111 9	37 54	31 40	-13 8	p1
į	3739		525	0.294	119 13	38 49	32 35	-13 44	g^2
į	3740		525	0.238	120 17	37 42	31 28	-12 41	H.
1	3741		525	0.296	114 38	38 10	31 56	-13 11	h.
ļ	3742		526	0.298	96 42	19 26	13 12	-15 15	W.
	3743		526	0.312	96 31	23 54	17 40	-15 57	W.
30.	3744	29.622	523	0.987	247 40	137 48	102 2	- 4 54	X.
1	3745		523 525	0.988 0.478	247 21 240 3	137 27 72 54	101 41 37 8	- 3 29 -12 44	Y.
i	$3746 \\ 3747$		525 525	0.465	241 15	71 12	35 26	-11 29	Yº.
4	3748		525	0.469	242 29	67 29	31 43	-10 59	Ĝº.
•	3749		525	0.375	228 11	67 53	32 7	-10 58	G1.
}	3750	i	525	0.323	230 57	66 45	30 59	-12 49	g. II.
	3751		525	0.299	240 4	67 26	31 40	-11 38	
i	3752		525	0.314	227 6	66 7	30 21	-10 4	h¹.
1	3753	1	526	0.244	239 36	49 28	13 42	-15 12	W.
	3754		526	0.257	239 20 94 3	53 4 17 54	17 10	-15 50 $-9 17$	W.
i	3755 3756		527 527	0.514	94 - 3 $93 - 19$	17 54	342 8 342 33	-917 -911	A ₁ .
	3757		527	0.602	95 11	21 29	345 43	-10 22	A_2 . a_1 .
1	3758		527	0.608	96 28	22 44	346 55	-10 37	a ₂ .
!	3759		527	0.577	90 29	25 6	349 20	- 7 57	В.
1	3760		527	0.573	89 54	26 17	350 31	- 5 13	b.
:	3761		527 .	0.282	86 22	22 33	346 47	- 4 48	c.
	3762	29.636	523	0.988	247 52	138 3	102 5	- 4 50	X.
1	3763		523	0.990	247 35	137 35	101 37	- 3 33	X.
- 1	3764		525 525	0·479 0·468	239 54 241 24	73 20	37 22 35 29	-12 38 $-11 34$	Y. Y.
1	3765 3766		525	0.472	242 37	67 42	31 44	-11 34	G°.
1	3767	1	525	0.378	228 5	68 10	32 12	-11 17	Ği.
1	3768	l i	525	0.327	230 59	66 46	30 48	-12 40	g.
	3769		525	0.302	240 13	67 25	31 27	-11 27	H.
1	3770		525	0.316	228 10	66 27	30 29	-10 11	h¹.
Ì	3771		526	0.248	239 33	49 48	13 50	-15 12	W.
į	3772	!	526	0.260	239 51	53 24	17 26	-16 1	W.
-	3773		527	0.512	94 17	18 11	342 13	- 9 22	A ₁ .
	3774		527 527	0.520 0.600	92 58 95 17	18 34 21 56	342 36 345 58	-910 -1020	A_2
ļ	$\frac{3775}{3776}$		527	0.606	96 33	23 8	347 10	-10 30	a ₁ .
į	3777	1 !	527	0.577	90 12	25 9	349 11	- 7 50	B.
	3778		527	0.570	89 59	26 14	350 16	- 5 10	b.
	3779		527	0.582	86 16	22 40	346 42	- 4 43	c.
Feb. 4.	3780	34.464	527	0.215	252 17	88 49	344 22	- 8 11	A.
	3781		527	0.564	250 29	87 46	343 19	- 7 5	в.
1	3782		527	0.577	251 38	87 29	343 2	- 7 42	C.
1	3783		527	0.508	244 57	84 44	340 17	- 4 14	a.
	3784	; ;	527	0.612	239 1	85 8	340 41	- 3 50	b.
	3785 3786		527 528	0.623 0.470	239 24 60 57	90 2 32 43	345 35 288 16	-64 + 531	e. D.
	$3786 \\ 3787$		528 528	0.470	60 57 61 13	33 57	288 10	$+531 \\ +548$	E.
ĺ	3788	1	528	0.481	62 2	33 19	288 52	+ 4 32	F.
1	3789	1 !	528	0.512	64 11	30 22	285 55	+ 3 21	G.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.		grapnical	Helio- graphical	Spot
1007		-		-		1	Longitude.	Latitude.	1
1864. Feb. 4	. 3790	04.404							_
reo. 4	3791	34.464	528	0.553	64 47	30 44	286 17		
	3792		528	0.555	65 33	28 19	283 52	+3 52	H.
	3793		528	0.604	65 31	26 47	282 20	+3 49	d.
	3794		528	0.618	64 12	26 33	282 6	+2 1	e.
	3795	1	529	0.622	64 17	20 11	275 44	+7 45	f.
	3796	34.482	529	0.630	66 43	22 40	278 13	+7 38	g.
	3797	01 702	527 527	0.516	251 59	89 27	344 46	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	h.
	3798		527	0.566	250 38	88 14	343 33	-7 12	A. B.
	3799		527	0.580 0.512	250 54	87 59	343 18	-7 44	C.
	3800		527	0.615	244 16	84 58	340 17	-4 18	a.
	3801		527	0.626	239 43	85 43	341 2	-4 1	b.
	3802	- 1	528	0.467	239 52 60 12	90 44	346 3	-5 55	c.
	3803		528	0.470	60 12	33 8	288 28	+5 30	D.
	3804	1	528	0.478	62 13	34 29	289 48	+5 50	E.
	3805	:	528	0.509	64 43	33 51	289 10	+4 21	. F.
	3806		528		64 59	31 0 31 26	286 19	+3 30	G.
	3807	1	528	0.551	65 32	29 1	294 45	+3 59	H.
	3808 3809	i	528	0.601	65 21	27 15	284 20 282 34	+3 40	d.
	3810		528 °	0.614	64 0	27 12	282 34 282 31	+2 24	e.
	3811		529	0.650	64 28	20 47	276 6	+7 50	f.
5.	3812	35.460	529	0.628	66 45	22 44	278 3	$+7 38 \\ +6 24$	g.
•"•	3813	99.400	527	0.653	243 22	103 32	344 57	+6 24 $-8 14$	h.
	3814	-	527 ; 527	0.659	244 19	102 17	343 42	-7 2	A.
	3815	- Tron	527	0.693	240 3	101 44	343 9	-755	В.
	3816		527	0.648 0.695	238 37	99 13	340 38	-4 32	a.
	3×17		527	0.712	239 11	99 40	341 5	-4 12	а. b.
	3818		528	0.293	246 42	105 36	347 1	-5 53	e.
	3819	1	258	0.298	$\frac{47}{47} \frac{19}{53}$	47 10	288 35	+514	Ď.
į	3820	1	528	0.303	48 15	48 23	259 48	+6 11	Ē.
1	3821	1	528	0.370	51 53	48 0 45 46	289 25	+4 16	F.
- 1	3822		528	0.374	52 26	45 46 45 54	287 11	+321	G.
į	3823	1	528	0.391	54 59	43 34	287 19	+417	н.
į	3824		528	0.372	53 14	41 19	284 27	+3 44	d. ;
	3825 395€		52×	0.420	54 25	41 20	282 44 238 45	+2 28	e.
1	3826 3827	1	529	0.454	58 29	34 48	274 13	+7 40	f.
į	3828	25,400	529	0.471	57 36	36 37	278 3	+7 27 +6 37	g
	3829	35.489	527	0.657	244 23	104 11	345 11	+6 37 $-8 12$	h.
ĺ	3830	:	527 527	0.663	242 58	102 48	343 48	-7 8	A. [
:	3831		527	0.696	240 41	102 23	343 23	-7 59	B
	3832	!		0.652	238 36	99 44	340 44	-4 22	a.
1	3833			0.717	239 24	109 18	341 18	-4 16	b.
	3834			0.289	246 51 47 24		347 32	-5 55	e.
1	3535	!		0.292	47 24 48 2	48 5	289 5	+5 19	Ď.
	3836	í		0.299	48 ∷9	48 22	289 22	+6 7	E.
	3837	ĺ	528	0.365	52 6		289 14	+4 1	F.
1	3838	1		0.370	52 49	46 7 46 25	287 7	+3 31	G.
	3839			0.388	54 44	43 37	287 25 284 37	+4 26	Н.
	3840	1		0.368	53 12	41 47		+3 40	d.
	3841 3842	.		0.417	55 0	41 56	282 47 : 282 56 :	+2 25	e.
	3843	İ		0.451	57 56	34 52	275 52	$+7 \ 41 \\ +7 \ 34$	f.
6.	3844	36-494		0.466	57 39	36 39	277 39	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	g.
	3845			0.823	244 29	121 38	348 23	-4 23	h.
ĺ		1	527 0	1.805	245 3	120 19	347 4	-3 38	a.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.																			
1864.		i			245° 38	119 6	345° 51	∴ s 14	c.																			
Feb. 6.	3846	36-494	527	0.817	245 38	118 54	345 39	- 2 36	d.																			
	3847		527	0.814		117 25	344 10	- 1 28	e.																			
	3848		527	0.859	247 52	62 54	289 39	+ 7 16	Aº.																			
1	3849		528	0.172	338 50 338 47	62 1	288 46	+ 6 52	Bo.																			
1	3850		528	0.173	339 21	62 36	289 21	+ 7 19	Cº.																			
1	3851	i	528	0.185	340 0	60 4	286 49	+ 8 12	Dº.																			
	3852	1	528	0·196 0·201	352 34	56 17	283 2	+ 513	E°.																			
1	3853	1	528	0.211	1 16	56 28	283 13	+ 9 18	а,.																			
1	3854		528 528	0.217	1 9	54 9	280 54	+ 2 23	b ₁ .																			
1	3855		528	0.166	2 28	55 13	281 58	+ 3 26	C,.																			
	3856	a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a	528	0.168	3 47	55 29	282 14	+ 6 25	d ₁ .																			
	3857		528	0.505	8 18	54 39	281 24	+ 5 8	e ₁ .																			
	3858		528	0.219	9 54	54 27	281 12	+ 5 12	M.																			
!	3859	i	528	0.225	10 45	53 18	280 3	+ 5 57	N.																			
	3860		529	0.260	29 12	50 14	276 59	+ 8 7	Р.																			
	3861	,	529 529	0.284	30 47	50 13	. 276 58	+716	p.																			
	3862			0.245	31 4	49 28	276 13	7 0	Q.																			
	3863	i	529	0.257	40 12	48 31	275 16	+96	q.																			
	3864	i	529	0.290	40 7	47 54	274 39	+ 10 16	1 90																			
	3565		530	0.484	88 24	34 22	261 7	- 6 23	R1.																			
	3866 3867	1	530	0.486	88 37	34 3	200 43	- 7 29	R2.																			
	3868	i	530	0.495	92 3	32 28	259 13	-7.54	1																			
	3869	,	! !	530	0.507	87 51	31 51	258 36	$\frac{-811}{-954}$	r. S1.																		
	3870		530	0.523	86 28	29 14	255 59		S2.																			
	3871		530	0.540	94 22	29 37	256 22		s1.																			
	3872		530	0.558	89 57	29 58	256 43		. s ² .																			
	3873		530	0.571	89 14	30 12	256 57	-10^{19}	a.																			
	3874	36-523	36-523	36-523	36.523	36-523	36-523	36.523	36-523	527	0.829	244 38	122 19	348 40	- 3 39	b.												
	3875									30.929	36.523	36.233	36.523	36-523	36.523	36.523	36.523	36-523	36.23	36.523	36-523	36.523	527	0.808	245 27	120 37	346 58	_ 5 16
	3876								527	0.820	244 57	119 54	1	_ 2 38	d.													
	3877	1	527	0.848	246 34	119 33	345 54	_ 1 29	C.																			
	3878	1	527	0.864	247 43	118 1	289 45		A																			
	3879		528	0.170	339 7	63 24		+ 7 22 + 6 57	B																			
	3880	1	528	0.171	338 59	63 36	289 57	+ 7 28	Č																			
i	3881	1	528	0.183	339 46	63 0	289 21 286 35	+ 8 0	Ď																			
1	3882	1	528	0.194	339 51	60 14		+ 5 14	E																			
	3583	1	528	0.199	352 33	57 31	283 52	+ 9.31	a,																			
ĺ	3884		528	0.209	1 24	57 2 54 38	280 59	+ 2 22	b,																			
1	3885		528	0.217	0 58	54 38 55 44	282 5	+ 3 28	c,																			
	3886	1	528	0.163	2 39	1	282 18	+ 6 20	d,																			
•	3887		528	0.164	3 43	55 57 55 36	281 57	+ 5 19	e,																			
	3888		528	0.200	8 17	55 2	281 23	+ 5 14	M																			
1	3889		528	0.215	10 1	53 27	279 48	+ 5 43																				
	3890		528	0.221	30 14	50 29	276 50	+89	P																			
:	3891		529	0.260	30 14	50 16	276 37	+ 7 16																				
7	3892		529	0.281	31 21	49 49	276 10	+ 9 6	Q																			
1	3893		529	0.241	40 19	49 6	275 27	+ 9 16	q																			
1	3894		529		40 50	48 18	274 39	+10 24																				
,	3895		529	0.288	88 21	34 57	261 18	_ 6 28	R																			
i	3896		530 530	0.484	88 27	34 56	261 17	_ 7 22																				
1	3897		530	0-491	92 28	32 20	258 41	- 7 50																				
:	3898		530	0.507	87 52	31 47	258 8	_ 8 31																				
İ	3899		530	0.523	86 30	29 29	255 50	- 9 50																				
	390		530	0.538	94 59	30 12		_ 9 14) S																			
1.2	390	1	000	0.000	1	1	1	1																				

ON SOLAR PHYSICS

TABLE III. (continued). TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Tir of Sun- picture	Group i	Company	Angle of Position.			al graphica	
1864.	C 225				-	-		_	_
Feb.	6. 3902		530	0.557	89 28	30 33	256 5	4 -10	: .
	3903	1 -	530	0.570	89 16	30 30			
1	0. 3904 3905	40-624	528	0.876	259 13	123 17	291 2		
	3905	1	528	0.864	258 54	122 54	291 4		
	3907	ı	528	0.851	260 2	120 33	288 43	. , ,	
	3908		528 529	0.855	259 44	119 14	287 24		
	3909	1	529	0.802	262 27	109 29	278 9		
	3910	ı	529	0.797	262 51	108 20	276 30	+ 7 49	
	3911	l	529	0.755	266 14	108 15	276 25		
	3912		529	0.763	267 29 265 23	108 2	276 12		F.
	3913		529	0.710	265 23	108 14	276 24	, , ,	c.
	3914		529	0.712	266 28	109 27	277 37	+ 9 57	d.
	3915	1	529	0.721	265 9	106 5	273 23 274 15	+10 22	e.
	3916		530	0.455	246 25	96 41	264 51	+10 14 $-6 24$	f.
	3917	İ	530	0.463	245 39	95 21	263 31	-624 -719	G. H.
	3918		530	0.470	247 28	95 17	263 27	-613	Н.
	3920	1	530 530	0.420	247 32	93 18	261 28	- 8 23	M.
	3921	1	530	0·355 0·370	248 50	92 27	260 37	- 8 12	g.
	3922	1	530	0.341	248 56 249 6	94 38	, 262 48	-10 19	h.
	3923		530	0.312	249 6 249 38	88 21	256 31	-10 4	k.
	3924	40.638	528	0.879	259 28	87 25 123 15	255 35 291 13	- 9 54	m.
	3925	:	528	0.868	258 50	123 10	291 13	+824 $+725$	A.
	3926	1 1	528	0.855	260 33	121 2	289 0	$+725 \\ +231$	В.
	3927 3928	1	528	0.860	260 4	119 38	287 36	+ 6 40	a. b.
	3929		529 529	0.802	262 55	109 25	277 23	+ 7 53	Č.
	3930		529	0.800	262 41	108 13	276 11	+749	D.
	3931	: 1	529	0.758	265 58 $267 30$	108 54	276 52	+ 8 13	E.
	3932		529	0.765	265 39	108 19	276 17	+ 8 35	F.
	3933	1	529	0.715	264 24	108 34 109 33	276 32 277 31	+ 7 15	C.
	3934		529	0.715	266 35	105 40	273 38	+951 +1020	d.
	3935		529	0.724	265 22	106 15	274 13	+10 20 +10 19	e. f.
į	3936 3937	i	530	0.458	246 40	96 12	264 10	- 6 22	G.
	3938		530	0.468	245 51	95 37	263 35	- 7 17	н.
į	3939	-	530 530	0.472	247 35	95 4	263 2	- 6 12	ĸ.
ţ	3940	1	530	0.422	247 40 1	93 28	261 26	- 8 15	M.
	3941		530	0.372	248 54 249 11	92 35 94 24	260 33	- 8 10	g.
1	3942		530	0.345	250 0	94 24 88 20	262 22 256 18	-10 23	h.
	3943		530	0.315	249 16	87 29	255 27	-10 0 $-9 55$	k.
17.	3944	47-439	531	0.510	288 12	103 53	175 23	+19 12	m. A.
	3945 3946		531	0.515	287 51	102 17	173 47	+21 2	B.
	3947		531	0.524	289 9	102 44	174 14	+18 57	c.
	3948			0.460	289 24	101 6	172 36	+17 26	D.
-	3949			0·443 0·455	292 12	98 5	169 35	+17 24	a.
	3950			0.478	293 38 294 6	99 13 97 24	170 43	+20 9	b.
1	3951	ĺ	1		294 28	96 55	168 54 168 25	+16 13	c.
	3952	1	532		232 37	99 13	170 43	$+1654 \\ -437$	d.
	3953	İ		0-428	230 28	94 19	165 49	- 3 38	E. F.
	3954			0.378	233 1	90 54	162 24	- 3 49	G.
į	3955 3956			0.054	99 6	75 12	146 42	+ 1 14	e.
	3957				100 4	76 33	147 3	+ 2 3	f.
	-500	- 1	000 [0.095	185 16	73 50	145 20	- 1 29	1

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.					184 45	71° 36	143 6	- 3 36	b.
Feb. 17.	3958 .	47.439	533	0.099		33 50	105 20	- 5 44	K.
	3959		534	0.647	80 13 81 17	33 37	105 7	- 5 40	k.
1	3960		534	0.643		104 12	175 16	+19 13	A.
1	3961	47-470	531	0.516	288 19	102 51	173 55	+21 10	В.
	3962		531	0.520	287 59	102 53	173 57	+18 53	C.
	3963		531	0.526	288 58	102 33	172 22	+17 30	D.
l	3964	1	531	0.463	289 20 293 2	98 55	169 59	+17 28	a.
1	3965		531	0.448	293 40	99 29	170 33	+20 13	b.
1	3966		531		294 16	98 2	169 6	+1625	c.
- 1	3967		531	0.480	294 43	97 38	168 42	+1655	d.
1	3968		531	0.480 0.432	232 41	100 0	171 4	_ 4 48	E.
.]	3969		532	0.432	230 30	94 36	165 40	_ 3 40	F.
	3970		532	0.380	233 15	91 28	162 32	- 3 55	G.
	3971	1	532	0.055	99 27	75 47	146 51	+ 0 52	e.
1	3972	1	533	0.053	100 43	76 58	148 2	+ 2 28	f.
	3973	į	533	0.001	186 3	73 58	145 2	_ 1 31	g.
	3974	i	533	0.100	184 50	72 30	144 34	_ 3 40	h.
	3975	1	533 534	0.645	80 21	34 14	105 18	5 55	K.
	3976	1		0.640	81 36	35 9	106 13	_ 5 39	k.
	3977		534	0.521	288 24	105 8	175 7	+19 15	A.
	3978	47.546	531	0.524	267 55	104 11	174 10	+21 8	В.
	3979	i	531	0.531	289 11	104 32	174 31	+18 55	C.
	3980		531	0.467	289 40	102 19	172 18	+17 31	D
	3981		531	0.455	293 31	100 3	170 2	+17 32	. a.
	3982	1	531	0.463	293 44	100 31	170 30	+20 20	ь.
	3983		531		294 28	99 17	169 16	+16 22	c.
	* 3984		531	0.484	294 27	98 52	168 51	+1650	d.
	3985		531	0.485	233 3	101 6	171 5	- 4 51	E
	3986	i	532	0.437	230 39	95 35	165 34	- 3 44	F.
	3987	1	532	0.384	233 42	92 4	162 3	_ 3 56	G
	3988	1	532	0.057	99 28	76 46	146 45	+ 0 47	e.
	3989	1	533	0.068	101 7	78 21	148 20	+ 2 30	f.
	3990	1	533	0.100	185 29	74 33	144 32	- 1 36	g.
	3991	ì	533	,	195 2	73 35	143 34	- 4 2	li,
	3992	1	533	0.105	81 19	35 28	105 27	- 6 0	K
	3993	l	534	0.639	81 49	36 18	106 17	- 5 44	k.
	3994	00.000	534		268 54	148 37	32 54	+14 22	A
Mar. 2.	3995	60.638	535	0.888	267 59	148 13	32 30	+14 51	B
	3996		535	0.893	267 2	146 30	30 47	+15 6	C
	3997	1	535	0.864	269 14	146 1	30 18	+15 39	Ī
	3998	1	535	0.859	268 0	147 19	31 36	+16 0	a
	3999	1	535		233 16	133 54	18 11	-10 17	b
4	4000		536	0.775	234 51	133 39	17 56	-11 38	c
	4001		536	0.760	234 28	133 12	17 29	-10 19	d
	4002		536	0.758	1	127 28	11 45	-12 33	E
	4003	1	536	0.756	235 4	128 19	12 36	$-12 \ 37$	F
	4004		536	0.670	233 52	128 19	12 20	-12 12	la
	4005	1	536	0.693		128 29	12 46	-11 4	I
	4006	1	536	0.666	236 39		331 48	+19 27	b
	4007	1	537	0.360	328 42	87 31 86 44	331 1	+20 44	- 1
	4008		537	0.363	329 4		329 46	+20 33	
	4009		537	0.365	330 21	85 29	329 40	+20 47	
	4010		537	0.357	340 40	83 14 83 12	327 29	+19 18	9
	4011		537	* 0.377	346 9		327 29	+19 39	
1	4012		537	0.365	345 37	80 33	324 30	+21 42	
:	4013		537	0.382	349 58	81 46	320 3	1 22 34	75

Date.	No.	Mean Tin of Sun- picture.	No. of Group i the Kew Catalogu	from	Angle of		e Helio- graphical Longitude		Spór
1864.			1						200
Mar.		60.638	537	0.380	352 14	-8-1			
	4015	1	537	0.382	353 59	82 29	326 46	+21 27	k1.
	4016		538	0.394	41 12	81 38	325 55	+18 14	k2.
	4017		538	0.401	41 38	64 9 64 11	308 26	+10 1	S.
	4018		539	0.798	76 33	64 11 35 30	308 28	+10 7	s.
	4019	1	539	0.792	76 12	35 47	279 47 279 4	- 6 50	P.
	4020 4021		540	0.870	53 19	25 17	279 4 269 34	- 6 33	p.
	4022		540	0.875	54 37	26 32	270 49	$+18 11 \\ +16 32$	Q.
	4023	60.658	540	0.866	52 26	26 39	270 56	+17 41	q1. q2.
	4024	00.038	535	0.890	269 3	148 53	32 53	+14 19	A.
	4025		535 535	0.895	267 34	148 36	32 36	+14 54	B.
	4026		535	0.867	266 54	147 1	31 1	+15 2	Č.
	4027	ļ	535	0.861	269 23	146 12	30 12	+15 30	D.
	4028	i	536	0.859	268 13	147 28	31 28	+16 3	a.
	4029		536	0.777 0.763	233 41 235 0	133 55	17 55	-10 10	b.
	4030	!	536	0.760	235 0	134 2	18 2	-11 36	c.
	4031		536	0.759	235 6		17 39	-10 26	d.
	4032		536	0.672	233 57	127 50 128 36	11 50	-1240	E.
	4033	1	536	0.695	234 13	128 34	12 36 12 34	- 12 39	F.
	4034	1 j	536	0.668	236 40	129 4	12 34	-12 7	G.
	4035	1 1	537	0.363	328 49	58 12	332 12	+19 20	н.
	4036 4037	; ;	537	0.365	329 19	87 59	331 59	+19 20 +20 42	h. e.
	4038		537	0.367	330 22	86 0	330 0	+20 33	f.
	4039		537 537	0.360	340 45	83 42	327 42	+20 40	g.
1	4040	!	537	0.366	346 19	83 40	327 40	+19 16	ĸ.
	4041	1	537	0·366 0·384	346 43 350 8	81 0	325 0	+1951	k.
,	4042		537	0.383	350 8 352 24	82 13	326 13	+21 45	K1.
	4043		537	0 384	354 16	82 46 81 26	326 46	+21 20	k¹.
- 1	4044		538	0.392	41 1	64 38	325 26	+18 12	k^2 .
į.	4045		538	0.399	41 32	64 36	308 38	+10 10	s.
i	4046	:	539	0.796	76 34	35 33	308 36 379 33 1	+10 12	8.
i	4047	4	539	0.790	76 52	35 49	279 49	-654 -637	Р.
	4048	i	540	0.868	53 16	25 27	269 27	+18 19	р.
:	4049 4050		540	0.871	54 13	26 40	270 40	+16 30	Q.
4.	4051	62-678	540	0.864	52 21	26 38	270 38	+17 44	q_1 .
1	4052	02010	536 536	0.970	235 16	155 13	10 34	-12 31	\mathbf{q}_2 . \mathbf{M} .
	4053	į	536	0.963 0.956	236 23	156 49	12 10	-12 17	N.
1	4054	1	536	0.936	234 48 233 59	156 1	11 22	-13 38	0.
	4055			0.931	235 50	159 35	14 56	$-13 \ 3$	m.
	4056		-	0.924	237 2	162 44 165 28	18 5 20 49	-14 2	n.
- 1	4057	į	1	0.558	282 42	121 53	20 49 337 14	-14 19	0.
1	4058	1	537	0.550	288 19	112 34	327 55	+19 39	A.
- 1	4059		537	0.563	283 24	114 9	329 30	+19 50 + 19 36	В.
- 1	4060			0.520	287 36	114 17	329 38		C. D.
I	4061 4062	1			285 5	115 56			D.
	4062				287 49	116 44			b.
- 1	4064				286 43	117 21	332 42	1 20 10	c.
	4065				300 11	98 29	313 50		P.
	4066				302 21 301 4	98 54	314 15	+10 41	р.
	4067			442	301 4 86 29	99, 8	314 29	+10 17 (g.
1	4068			146	86 45		280 32 -	- 4 10	F.
*	4069		540a 0	- 10	00 20	UJ Z/	280 48	- 6 46 1	f.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node,	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.					. ,	20.1	g ,		~.
Mar. 4.	4070	62.678	540a	0.559	42 29	60 52	276 13	+18 13	G1.
	4071		540a	0.531	43 38	59 14	274 35	+17 28	G².
	4072	62.695	536	0.973	236 14	155 28	10 34	-12 35	M.
- 1	4073		536	0.965	236 57	157 9	12 15	-12 19	N.
	4074		536	0.958	235 2	156 28	11 34	-13 30 $-13 10$	0.
- 1	4075		536 536	09·50 0·936	233 18 236 9	160 4 163 19	15 10 18 25	-14 9	m. n.
- 1	4076		536	0.925	236 9 236 51	165 55	21 1	-14 22	0.
	4077 4078	i	537	0.560	283 13	122 28	337 34	+19 50	A.
1	4079		537	0.553	288 11	112 40	327 46	+19 59	В.
1	4080	1	537	0.565	283 44	114 45	329 51	+19 40	C.
	4081		537	0.522	288 0	114 21	329 27	+20 17	D.
1	4082		537	0.536	285 41	116 20	331 26	+19 16	a.
	4083		537	0.549	287 18	117 12	332 18	+20 30	ь.
	4084	1	537	0.521	286 40	117 54	333 0	+20 16	c.
1	4085		538	0.555	300 29	98 42	313 48	+11 35	P.
	4086		538	0.241	302 44	99 13	314 19	+10 47	p.
- 1	4087	1	538	0.218	300 55	. 99 47	314 53	+10 19	q. F.
- 1	4088		539	0.440	86 39	65 31	280 37	- 4 11	
	4089	1	539	0.444	87 3	65 35	280 41	- 6 50	f.
	4090		540	0.553	41 24	60 51	275 57	$+17 52 \\ +18 1$	G0.
1	4091		540	0.556	42 32	61 14	276 20		G ²
10.	4092	68.702	540	0·527 0·822	43 37	59 38 153 2	274 44 282 56	$+17 36 \\ +18 42$	
10.	4093	08.702	540 540	0.822	265 23 265 51	153 2 154 51	282 56 284 45	+17 54	g ₁ .
1	4094 4095		541	0.562		66 30	196 24	+22 27	A.
- 1	4096		541	0.571	31 19 31 28	65 19	195 13	+22 6	В.
1	4097	1	541	0.578	33 4	65 24	195 18	+23 19	C.
	4098		: 41	0.590	32 41	63 53	193 47	+22 33	D.
1	4099		541	0.601	33 35	63 47	193 41	+24 54	a.
1	4100		541	0.613	34 59	64 40	194 34	+23 21	b.
1	4101	ĺ	541	0.628	35 6	64 17	194 11	+22 19	c.
1	4102		541	0.644	35 7	60 0	189 54	+24 15	d.
	4103	1	542	0.540	74 29	63 31	193 25	- 4 54	X.
	4104	1	542	0.549	75 34	62 46	192 40	- 4 45	x.
. 1	4105	1	542	0.552	75 56	62 19	192 13	- 3 9	Y.
	4106		542	0.694	76 28	50 11	180 5	- 3 41	y.
1	4107		543	0.930	59 38	28 50	158 44	+ 7 18 + 7 26	M.
1	4108	68.712	543	0.932	60 11	27 32	157 26 283 5	+ 7 26 +18 47	n.
-	4109 4110	08-712	540 540	0.825 0.830	265 28 266 2	153 19 155 4	284 50	+17 49	g ₁ .
1	4111		541	0.560	31 23	66 41	286 27	+22 28	g ₂ .
1	4112		541	0.569	31 46	65 22	195 8	+22 14	В.
1	4113		541	0.577	33 9	65 50	195 36	+23 37	C.
1	4114		541	0.588	33 10	64 1	193 47	+22 34	D.
	4115	1	541	0.597	34 2	63 58	193 44	+24 50	a.
	4116	i	541	0.609	35 50	64 47	194 33	+23 17	b.
1	4117	1	541	0.624	34 49	65 0	194 46	+22 16	c.
1	4118	İ	541	0.640	35 12	60 17	190 3	+24 8	d.
1	4119	į	542	0.536	76 13	63 52	193 38	- 4 33	Х.
1	4120		542	0.545	75 55	62 57	192 43	- 4 46	х.
1	4121		542	0.550	76 38	62 25	192 11	- 3 9	Y.
	4122	i	542	0.692	76 13	50 37	180 23	- 3 48	y.
	4123		543	0.928	60 47	29 8	158 54	+ 7 20	M.
11	4124	COLEC	543	0.930	60 47	28 29	158 15	+ 7 28	n.
11.	4125	69.652	540	0.920	258 52	165 45	282 11	+17 17	g

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue	Centre	Angle of Position.		Helio- graphical Longitude		Spot.
1864.	_		-	-	-				
Mar. 11	4126	69.652	540	0.918	259 27	168 13	284 39	1 18 7	١,
	4127		541	0.471	13 8		195 19	+18 54 +21 19	g¹. Aº.
	4128		541	0.483	14 34		195 17	+22 3	Bo.
	4129		541	0.490	13 28	79 18	195 44	+24 36	C°.
	4130	1	541	0.492	16 25	80 48	197 14	+22 47	D°.
	4131		541	0.506	18 24	75 57	192 23	+24 11	a1.
	4132		541	0.511	20 21	77 12	193 38	+22 50	b1.
	4133		541	0.528	21 37	74 15	190 41	+23 38	ci.
	4134		541	0.532	22 50	74 3	190 29	+22 9	d¹.
	4135	!	542	0.388	77 9	77 36	194 2	- 4 9	X.
	4136		542	0.390	77 32	76 18	192 44	- 4 26	x.
	4138		542	0.397	78 14	75 19	191 45	- 3 52	Y.
	4139		542 543	0.408	78 32	65 51	182 17	- 3 37	y.
	4140		543	0.855 0.861	56 56 56 4	43 1	159 27	+749	M.
	4141	69-667	540	0.923	258 40	42 42 165 53	159 8	+718	n.
	4142	' '	540	0.923	260 11	165 53 168 40	282 5	+17 15	g°.
	4143		541	0.468	13 7	79 7	284 52 195 19	+19 0	g¹. Aº.
	4144	!	541	0.480	14 58	79 0	195 19	+21 14 +22 16	Bo.
	4145	1	541	0.486	13 26	79 46	195 58	+24 25	C°.
	4146		541	0.490	16 17	80 57	197 9	+22 32	Dº.
	4147	1	541	0.503	18 33	75 52	192 4	+24 10	a ¹ .
	4148		541	0.509	20 29	77 44	193 56	+22 56	b ¹ .
	4149	1	541	0.527	21 14	74 29	190 41	+23 49	c¹.
	4150		541	0.530	23 8	74 30	190 42	+22 8	d¹.
	4151	: 1	542	0.386	77 6	77 54	194 6	- 4 17	X.
	4152		542	0.388	77 51	76 33	192 45	- 4 30	x.
	4153	:	542	0.393	78 23	75 31	191 43	- 3 57	Υ.
	4154 4155	1	549	0.406	78 41	66 9	182 21	- 3 31	y.
i	4156	1	543	0.851	56 41	43 12	159 24	+ 7 49	M.
12.	4157	70.518	543	0.857	56 0	43 1	159 13	+ 7 23	n.
	4158	,0010	540 540	0.973	258 13	178 59	283 7	+17 12	g".
ì	4159	.	541	0.976 0.381	259 56 357 14	179 31	283 39	+18 38	g¹.
	4160	: !	541	0.391	359 50	93 17	197 25	+20 17	A.
i	4161	i i	541	0.386	358 7	91 28	198 9 195 36	+22 13 + 21 45	В.
	4162		541	0.402	4 41	88 55	193 3	$+21 \ 45 \\ +22 \ 53$	C.
	4163	1	541	0.417	3 26	89 34	193 42	+23 19	a. b.
-	4164		541	0.430	3 20	87 16	191 24	+23 36	c.
	4165		542	0.182	94 25	90 12	194 20	- 5 6	D.
- 1	4166	1	542	0.187	93 17	90 2	194 10	- 4 41	E.
1	4167	1	542	0.191	95 21	89 10	193 18	- 3 52	d.
	4168	-	542	0.206	94 38	88 46	192 54	- 3 38	e.
1	4169		543	0.722	55 13	56 37	160 45	+ 7 16	f.
16.	4170	74.507	543	0.725	55 47	57 58	162 6	+84	g.
	4171	74.307	541	0.783	273 6	150 11	197 45	+18 22	М.
	4173	1	541 541	0.784	272 19	149 37	197 11	+18 47	m°.
- 1	4174	Ì	541	0.775	272 53 273 21	150 4	197 38	+1930	m¹.
-	4175		541	0.762	272 16	146 27	194 1	+19 12	m².
1	4176	1	541	0.755	274 40	145 21 147 9	192 55	+20 44	N.
	4177		541	0.746	273 11	147 9 143 16	194 43 190 50	+21 29	No.
1	4178			0.749	270 2	143 10	190 30	+19 30	n.
1	4179	1		0.700	275 33	144 11	192 21	+22 21 +23 56	ne.
- 1	4180	- 1		0.740	235 44	147 34	195 8	-614	n¹. G.
1	4181	!		0.743	233 10	148 39	196 13	- 5 13	н. Н.

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spo
1864.		1						- ·	
Mar. 16.	4182	74.507	542	0.736	236 58	148 11	195 45	- 4 45	g.
	4183	1	543	0.254	288 27	112 15	159 49	+ 8 25	g. S.
- 1	4184	1	543	0.261	289 8	109 2	156 36	+ 7 0	5.
	4185		544	0.976	71 0	22 57	70 31	- 4 4	P.
1	4186		544	0.962	72 57	23 42	71 16	- 4 56	p.
1	4187		544	0.958	71 16	21 32	69 6	- 5 39	Q
- 1	4188	74.536	541	0.786	273 38	151 0	198 14	+18 27	M
1	4189	,1000	541	0.788	272 14	149 46	197 0	+18 59	m
			541	0.778	272 55	149 57	197 11	+19 33	m
1	4190	1		0.764		146 16	193 30		m
	4191	1	541	0.758			193 12	+19 17 +20 38	
1	4192		541		272 18				N
	4193		541	0.759	274 59	147 23	194 37	+21 32	N
	4194	1. 1	541	0.750	273 44	143 19	190 33	+19 47	n.
	4195		541	0.753	269 51	144 37	191 51	+22 24	nº
	4196	1	541	0.703	275 43	144 18	191 32	+24 0	n'
	4197	1	542	0.742	235 40	147 30	194 44	- 6 16	G
i	4198		542	0.745	233 18	148 45	195 59	- 5 9	Н
i	4199	1	542	0.739	237 2	148 22	195 36	- 4 37	g.
1	4200		543	0.258	289 3	112 14	159 28	+ 8 22	g. S.
1	4201	1	543	0.264	289 40	109 47	157 1	+ 7 11	8.
;	4202	!	544	0.975	71 12	23 50	71 4	- 4 3	P
1	4203	[544	0.960	73 14	23 57	71 11	- 5 2	p.
,	4204	1	544	0.956	71 15	21 35	68 49	- 5 43	Q
17.	4205	75-610	541	0.902	264 46	166 16	198 11	+18 37	A
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	4206	10010	541	0.897	262 21	164 38	196 33	+21 30	B
]			262 34	161 41	193 36	+19 33	C
-	4207	1	541	0.860	0.0		195 2		
1	4208	l i	541	0.857	263 19	163 7			a.
	4209	1 1	541	0.862	264 48	160 21	192 16	+17 48	b.
1	4210		542	0.884	232 9	164 21	196 16	- 6 47	D
	4211	1	542	0.887	232 41	165 54	197 49	- 5 56	d.
	4212		543	0.443	262 11	127 22	159 17	+ 8 39.	E
1	4213		543	0.446	262 27	125 47	157 42	+ 9 14	e.
- !	4214		544	0.881	67 20	38 42	70 37	- 6 56	F.
1	4215	(544	0.883	68 59	38 13	70 8	- 4 21	f.
1	4216		544	0.897	69 2	38 14	70 9	- 5 29	g.
1	4217	1 1	545	0.940	69 50	26 2	57 57	- 8 28	M
	4218	1	545	0.951	68 57	25 52	57 47	- 8 43	N
ì	4219	1 1	545	0.952	70 7	25 19	57 14	9 56	0
1	4220	1	546	0.975	50 23	12 42	44 37	+11 5	P
	4221	1 1	546	0.979	50 37	11 41	43 36	+10 19	p.
1	4222	75.648	541	0.907	265 3	167 0	198 23	+18 40	A
1	4223	1	541	0.899	268 29	164 52	196 15	+21 32	B
	4224	1 1	541	0.865	262 35	162 18	193 41	+19 30	C
1	4225	1	541	0.861	263 11	163 50	195 13	+19 56	
1	4226	1	541	0.866		160 51			a.
1		1 1							b.
1	4227	1 1	542	0.889	232 21	164 38	196 1		Ď
	4228	! !	542	0.891	232 37	166 27	197 50	- 6 2	d.
į	4229 .	1 1	543	0.449	262 32	127 49	159 12	+ 8 43	E.
į	4230	1	543	0.454	262 4	126 18	157 41	+ 9 17	e.
	4231		544	0.879	67 19	39 4	70 27	- 6 51	F.
į	4232		544	0.876	69 2	38 46	70 9	- 4 19	f.
1	4233	1	544	0.892	69 55	38 39	70 2	- 5 38	g.
1	4234		545	0.938	69 42	26 31	57 54	- 8.26	M
1	4235		545	0.948	69 13	26 17	57 40	- 8 40	N
1	4236	1	545	0.950	70 8	25 41	57 4	10 1	0
1	4237	1	546	0.973	50 30	12 45	44 8	+11 4	P

TABLE III. (continued).

		of Sun picture		from Centre,	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node		Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spe
1864.					-	±			
ar, 17	7. 423		546	0.978	50° 44	12 14	/		
1 18			541	0.965	261 52	12 14 180 26	43 37	+10 22	
	424		541	0.962	262 19	179 33	199 55	+19 4	
	424		541	0.960	261 27	181 37	199 2 200 1	+19 31	N.
	424		541	0.953	262 36	180 41	200 1 199 10	+21 32 +20 33	m.
	424		542	0.962	233 45	179 50	199 19	$\begin{array}{rrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrr$	n.
*	424		542	0.967	234 1	180 39	200 8	- 6 11	0.
•	4240		543 543	0.570	255 22	140 22	159 51	+ 9 54	P.
	4247		544	0.572	256 16	141 18	160 47	+ 8 34	p.
	4248	3	544		69 16	54 17	73 46	- 3 9	Q.
	4249		544	0.773	70 28 69 57	56 7	75 36	- 3 57	q.
	4250		545	0.858	69 57 71 13	56 24	75 53	- 5 18	r.
	4251		545	0.861	71 26	42 21 42 56	61 50	- 8 26	R.
	4252		545	0.863	72 44	42 56 40 36	62 25	- 8 13	S.
	4253		546	0.894	49 59	27 19	60 5 46 48	- 7 52	s.
	4254		546	0.892	50 55	26 16	46 48 45 45	+11 19	X.
	4255 4256		546	0.303	50 14	28 42	48 11	+12 49 +13 4	X.
	4257	ł	546		51 6	24 36	44 2	+13 4 $+11$ 27	Y.
	4258	76.500	1	0.967	262 7	180 34	199 51	+19 8	y. M.
	4259		541	0.964	262 39	179 56	199 13	+19 30	N.
	4260	1	541 541	0.961	261 18	182 0	201 17	+21 25	m.
	4261	:	542	0.956	262 54	180 55	200 12	+20 39	n.
	4262	1	542	0·964 0·969	233 37	180 13	199 30	-712	O.
	4263	i	543	0.57\$	233 59	180 53	200 10	- 6 13	0.
	4264	i	543	0.575	255 28 256 56	140 39	159 46	+ 9 58	P.
	4265	i	544	0.760	256 56 70 2	141 52 54 39	161 9	+ 8 30	p.
	4266	-	544	0.771	70 34	54 39 56 35	73 56 75 52	- 3 10	Q.
	4267	ļ	544 :		69 50	56 56	75 52 76 13	- 3 57	q.
	4268	i	545	0.856	71 12	42 25	61 42	- 5 25 - 8 30	r.
	4269 4270	1	545	0.859	71 48	43 9	62 26	_ 8 11	R.*
	4271	:	545	0.860	72 46	40 50	60 7	_ 7 50	S.
j	4272	1	546	0.892	49 42	27 25	46 42	+11 23	X.
	4273	i	546 546	0.890	50 51	26 33	45 50	+12 54	X.
	4274	i	546	0.901	50 29	28 58	48 15	+13 7	Ŷ.
19.	4275	77.512	543	0.948 0.763	51 22	25 9	44 26	+11 27	y.
	4276	11 012	543	0.770	249 6	153 16	158 19	+10 2	A.
	4277	! !	543	0.771	250 14 251 33	154 28	159 24	- 8 37	В.
	4278	1	544	0.572	64 22	156 8 67 32	161 4	+ 9 42	C.
- 1	4279	1	544	0.583	65 19	67 32 70 23	72 28	_ 3 14	D.
	4280	1	544	0.575	68 18	71 26	75 19 76 22	- 4 33 - 3 45	a.
1	4281	į į	544	0.591	67 51	71 59	76 55	- 3 45 - 5 52	b.
	4282			0.584	68 46	69 37	74 33	- 3 32 - 3 19	c.
1	4283 4284			0.595	67 19	69 40	74 36	_ 4 0	d. e.
	4285			0.689	69 24	56 17	61 13	- 8 36	E.
	4286			0.712	68 37	57 23	62 19	- 7 31	F.
	4287			0.694	68 45	57 49	62 45	- 8 28	G.
-	4288			0.701	69 2	55 8	60 4	- 9 23	f.
	4289			0.722	70 5	55 35	60 31	- 7 7	
	4290			0.780 0.782	44 19	40 54	45 50	+11 18	g. K.
	4291	1		790	43 52 45 0	43 42	48 38	+12 36	k.
	4292	- 1		796	45 0 44 36	39 26 42 57	44 22	+12 39	M.
	4293	77.534		768	249 18	42 57 153 40	47 53 158 17	$+13 25 \\ +10 4$	m. A.

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- * graphical Latitude.	Spot
1864.		-							
Mar. 19.	4294	77-534	543	0.772	250 13	154 44	159 21	+ 8 41	В.
Mai. 13.	4295	11 004	543	0.774	252 27	156 19	160 56	+ 9 40	C.
	4296		544	0.569	64 26	67 53	72 30	- 3 15	D.
	4297		544	0.578	65 0	70 38	75 15	- 4 37	a.
- !	4298		544	0.572	68 13	71 54	76 31	- 3 39	b.
-	4299	!	544	0.589	67 40	72 22	76 59	- 5 51	c.
1	4300		544	0.582	69 4	69 50	74 27	- 3 17	d.
i	4301		544	0.592	67 11	70 2	74 39	- 4 1	. e.
1	4302		545	0.687	69 22	57 8	61 45	- 8 34	E.
	4303		545	0.710	68 54	57 59	62 36	- 7 25	F.
	4304		545	0.693	69 6	58 10	62 47	- 8 26	G.
ł	4305	1 1	545	0.695	69 14	55 35	60 12	- 9 19	f.
1	4306	!!!	545	0.719	70 42	56 38	61 5	- 7 11	g.
!	4307	:	546	0.776	44 23	41 15	45 52	+11 19	K.
1	4308 4309	1	546	0.780	44 16	43 56	48 33 44 29	+12 44	k.
1	4310		546 546	0·786 0·794	45 28 44 31	39 52 43 9	44 29 47 46	+1241 + 1316	M m
23.	4311	81.530	544	0.794	44 31 239 13	126 18	74 15	-317	A.
20.	4312	01.990	544	0.319	240 28	124 46	72 43	- 2 37	a.
1	4313		545	0.170	237 6	119 51	67 48	- 3 21	В.
	4314	! !	545	0.182	237 54	116 52	64 49	- 2 35	b.
i	4315	1 1	546a	0.322	317 34	115 36	63 33	+14 48	C.
	4316	! !	546a	0.327	316 25	115 1	63 58	+15 2	C.
i	4317	1	547	0.570	37 12	76 33	24 30	+17 50	D.
1	4318		547	0.572	38 48	75 29	23 26	+18 22	E.
1	4319	!	547	0.581	37 24	76 14	24 11	+17 23	d.
i	4320	1	547	0.584	36 3	77 47	25 44	+18 47	e.
1	4321		548	0.740	43 17	63 9	11 6	+20 34	F.
1	4322	,	548	0.742	42 46	64 6	12 3	+19 0	f.
	4323	1	548	0.755	43 49	62 27	10 24	+19 8	g.
* 29. ¦	4324	87.476	547	0.781	264 3	167 27	31 3	+17 16	. A.
1	4325	1 1	547	0.784	265 19	166 37	30 13	+17.58	В.
1	4326	1	547	0.796	265 37	167 42	31 18	+18 40	a.
i	4327		547	0.799	265 23	164 9	27 45	+17 18	b.
	4328 4329		548	0.619	272 45	155 36	19 12	+20 22	C.
	4339	1	548	0.640	272 44	154 31	18 7	+19 36	D. E.
1	4331		548	0.637	274 26	153 15 155 44	16 51	+21 4	
	4332	1	548 548	0.643	273 50 274 55	155 44 152 41	19 20 16 17	$+20 \ 45$ $+19 \ 58$	e. d.
}	4333		549	0.355	355 9	108 26	332 2	+19 58 +21 27	F.
Ì	4334		549	0.360	358 42	106 21	329 57	+21 9	G.
ì	4335	1	549	0.364	0 36	108 47	332 23	+23 50	Н
1	4336		549	0.390	357 4	104 34	328 10	+23 19	e.
	4337	1	549	0.401	359 47	103 50	327 26	+22 18	f.
1	4338		549	0.372	0 34	105 52	329 28	+33 32	g.
1	4339		549	0.422	2 32	104 28	328 4	+21 37	h.
	4340		549	0.420	3 28	104 6	327 42	+22 1	n.
-	4341	1	550	0.870	47 0	55 34	279 10	+17 50	X.
i	4342		550	0.873	48 16	55 12	278 48	+16 24	x.
	4343	87.561	547	0.786	264 26	168 24	30 48	+17 22	A.
*	4344		547	0.788	265 33	167 32	29 56	+18 3	В.
į	4345		547	0.799	265 21	168 40	31 4	+18 47	a.
i	4346	1	547	0.805	265 17	165 2	27 26	+17 25	b.
į	4347	1	548	0.622	272 44	156 27	18 51	+20 19	C.
i	4348	1	548	0.641	272 59	155 19	17 43	+19 42	D.
1	4349	1	548	0.625	274 35	154 2	16 26	+21 15	E.

TABLE III. (continued).

			,		ii. (contin				
Date	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node	Helio- graphical Longitude	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spo
1864.									
Mai. 29.	4350	87.561	548	0.640	273 49	156 50	19 14	+21 0	c.
	4351	1	548	0.645	274 51	153 37	16 1	+19 52	d.
	4352	1	549	0.353	356 13	109 20	331 44	+21 27	F.
	4353		549	0.361	358 49	107 11	329 35	+21 12	G.
	4354	,	549	0.362	359 59	109 31	331 55	+2354	H.
	4355		549	0.389	357 25	105 26	327 50	+23 22	e.
	4356		549	0.402	359 30	104 28	326 52	+2220	f.
	4357	1	549	0.370	1 2	106 43	329 27	+2340	g.
	4358	!	549	0.420	2 46	105 16	327 40	+21 38	h.
	4359	1	549	0.421	3 27	104 55	327 19	+22 9	m.
	4360		550	0.868	47 19	56 24	278 48	+ 17 56	Х.
••	4361	00.000	550	0.870	48 31	56 9	278 33	+16 33	x.
30.	4362	88-659	547	0.902	257 27	181 0	27 53	+17 39	S.
	4363		547	0.899	256 34	183 38	30 31	+17 36	R.
	4364		547	0.889	257 31	181 10	28 3	+18 27	s.
	4365		548	0 795	261 26	169 56	16 49	+19 3	Ρ.
	4366	1	548	0.799	263 4	171 23	18 16	+21 6	Q.
	4367		548	0.803	261 9	169 49	16 42	+20 14	M.
	4368		548	0.814	262 18	170 54	17 47	+19 8	р.
	4369	1	010	0.843	263 15	171 37	18 30	+20 12	q.
	4370		548	0.831	263 35	170 37	17 30	+21 39	m.
	4371	1	549	0.440	302 56	122 52	329 45	+23 41	A.
	4372	1	549	0.436	301 5	118 26	325 19	+22 22	В.
	4373		549	0.442	301 22	124 15	331 8	+22 37	ç.
	4374		549	0.376	306 29	121 24	328 17	+21 7	D.
	4375		549	0.382	308 33	120 27	327 20	+23 28	a.
	4376		549	0.379	307 32	123 20	330 13	+22 22	b.
	4377		549	0.378	309 54	119 2	325 55	+20 18	c.
	4378		549	0.370	321 47		326 56	+21 3	d.
	4379		549	0.369	321 11	119 30	326 23	+23 28 $+22 55$	e.
	$\frac{4380}{4381}$		549	0 366	322 16	118 32		. ,	т.
	4382		550	0.730	40 26	70 59 72 11	277 52 279 4	+16 29	Y.
	4383	au Cro	550					+17 14	y.
	4384	88 672	547	0.905		181 12 183 48	27 50 30 26	+17 42	5.
,	4385		547	0 902		183 48 181 17	27 55	+17 30	R.
,	4386		547 548	0·892 0·796	257 19 261 38	170 2	16 40	$+1828 \\ +1912$	s. P.
	4387		548	0.802	263 19	171 48	18 26	+21 12	Q.
	4388	1	548	0.806	261 2	170 13	16 51	+20 12	M.
	4389	i	548	0.816	262 37	171 13	17 51	+19 37	р.
	4390	ł	548	0.845	263 41	171 46	18 24	+20 22	q.
	4391	l	548	0.835	263 18	170 33	17 11	+21 41	m.
	4392		549	0.442	303 12	123 17	329 55	+23 39	Α.
	4393	ı	549	0.437	300 59	118 39	325 17	+22 31	В.
	4394	I	549	0.444	301 28	124 18	330 56	+22 40	Č.
	4395		549	0.377	306 34	121 50	328 28	+21 9	Ď.
	4396		549	0.384	308 35	120 44	327 22	+23 29	a.
	4397		549	0.381	307 31	123 38	330 16	+22 20	b.
	4398		549	0.379	309 50	119 14	325 52	+20 19	c.
	4399		549	0.374	321 36	119 52	326 30	+21 14	d.
	4400	,	549	0.372	321 0	119 53	326 31	+23 30	e.
1	4401	1	549	0.369	322 28	119 2	325 40	+23 4	f.
	4402	1	550	0.726	40 14	71 16	277 54	+16 30	Ÿ.
i	4403	į	550	0.725	41 36	72 35	279 13	+17 20	y.
31.	4404	89-438	547	0.962	263 11	192 54	28 40	+17 12	Α.
	4405		547	0.963	264 37	194 47	30 33	+18 19	В.

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864									
Mar. 31.	4406	89.438	547	0.968	264 41	194 31	30 17	+18 6	c.
	4407		548	0.892	264 14	179 30	15 16	+1857	A'.
1	4408		548	0.902	263 9	183 30	19 16	+19 13	B'.
ĺ	4409		548	0.895	262 26	182 42	18 28	+21 40	C'-
;	4410		548	0.897	265 57	182 55	18 41	+21 12	a.
	4411		548	0.903	266 56	181 6	16 52	+20 43	b.
1	4412		548	0.906	265 25	181 26	*17 12 330 6	+21 9 +24 2	c. D.
	4413	1	549	0.518	290 40 291 18	134 20 135 57	330 6 331 43	$+24 2 \\ +23 50$	E.
i	4415	1	549 549	0.521 0.464	291 18 295 57	130 51	326 37	+20 56	F.
i	4416		549 549	0.462	293 37	129 41	325 27	+20 30	d.
	4417	!	549	0.431	303 13	134 3	329 49	+22 37	e.
:	4418	1	549	0.427	302 12	137 8	332 54	+23 28	f.
i	4419	i	550	0.608	39 44	85 9	280 55	+16 28	G.
1	4420		550	0.609	38 33	82 23	278 9	+1719	
1	4421	89-500	547	0.963	263 19	193 39	28 33	+1711	g. A.
1	4422		547	0.965	264 53	195 52	30 46	+18 25	В.
	4423	i	547	0-970	265 7	195 21	30 15	+1819	C.
1	4424		548	0.894	264 33	180 25	15 19	+19 2	A'.
;	4425		548	0.904	263 51	186 56	19 50	+1911	Β'.
	4426	1	548	0.897	262 34	183 42	18 36	+21 44	C'.
i	4427	1	548	0.899	265 12	184 3	18 57	+21 8	a.
1	4428		548	0.906	267 28	181 46	16 40	+20 40	b.
i	4429		548	0.910	266 0	182 25	17 19	+21 15	C.
į	4430		549	0.520	291 7	135 20	330 14	+24 0	D.
	4431		549	0.523	291 52 296 22	136 21	331 15	$+23 55 \\ +20 59$	E.
	4432 4433		549	0.468		131 50 130 27	326 44 325 21	$+20 59 \\ +21 48$	d.
i	4434	1	549 549	0.431	297 31 303 16	130 27	329 36	+22 33	6.
:	4435		549	0.431	302 41	138 1	332 55	+23 37	f.
	4436		550	0-605	40 12	85 48	280 42	+ 16 19	G.
	4437		550	0.607	38 50	83 24	278 18	+17 24	g.
Apr. 1.	4438	90-432	548	0.972	257 38	194 34	16 15	+20 41	M.
Lipit 20	4439	30 102	548	0.980	259 19	197 21	19 2	+19 13	M
	4440		548	0.970	258 13	198 48	20 29	+21 27	m.
	4441	1	548	0.983	259 27	196 49	18 30	+20 56	m"
	4442	1	549	0.676	274 23	147 57	329 38	+23 38	A٠
	4443	1	549	0.672	274 24	149 52	331 33	+24 24	В.
	4444		549	0.680	275 54	144 30	326 11	+22 57	c.
	4445	1	549	0.692	276 13	146 33	328 14	+21 52	D.
i	4446	ì	549	0.590	274 11	151 27	333 8	+20 25	a.
	4447	ļ	549	0.586	275 0	151 28	333 9	+1929	b.
	4448]	549	0.582	282 50	144 1	325 42	+24 31	c.
	4449		549	0.550	282 6	145 2	326 43	+20 30	d.
	4450 4451	1	549 550	0.553	283 7	147 16	328 57	+23 52	e.
	4451 4452		550	0.464	26 23	99 36	281 17	+16 11	G.
	4452	90-455	548	0.471	26 29 257 33	96 45	278 26 16 39	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	g. M.
	4454	90-400	548	0.981	258 56	195 18	16 39 19 20	+19 17	M
	4455		548	0.973	258 35	197 59	20 14	+21 23	m.
	4456	1	548	0.986	259 35	197 15	18 36	+21 0	mo
	4457	į	549	0.680	274 28	148 16	329 37	+23 34	A.
	4458	1	549	0.673	274 26	150 9	331 30	+24 27	В.
	4459		549	0.682	276 1	144 54	326 15	+23 2	C.
	4460		549	0.694	276 18	146 58	328 19	+21 48	D.
	4461	1	549	0.591	274 10	151 39	333 0	+20 25	a.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No	Mean Time of Sim- picture	No of Group in the Kew Catalogue	Distance from Centre	Angle of Position	Longitude from Node	Helio- graphical Longitude	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spo
1864	1		-		J				
Apr. 1.	4462	90.455	549	0 588	1 0-2	۰,			1
	4463	100	549	0.584	275 15 283 3	151 33	332 54	+19 36	b.
	4464	1	549	0.555	283 3	144 12	325 33	+24 30	e.
	4465		549	0.557	283 16	145 20 147 38	326 41	+20 25	d.
	4466		550	0.462	26 54		328 59	+23 46	e.
	4467	1	550	0.468	27 13	$\frac{100}{97}$ 11	281 28	+16 16	G.
2.	4468	91-496	549	0 836	265 21	165 32	278 32 332 7	+17 20	g.
	4469		549	0.821	266 38	163 16	329 51	$^{+22}_{+21}$ $^{26}_{4}$	Aº.
	4470		549	0.804	267 7	159 37	326 12		B0.
	4471		549	0.762	264 54	161 55	328 30	$+20 54 \\ +22 30$	Co.
	4472		549	0.760	265 37	157 26	324 1	+22 28	a°.
	4473	07.700	550	0.314	355 16	112 54	279 29	$+22 28 \\ +16 58$	G.
	4474	91.506	549	0.839	265 34	165 49	332 15	+22 30	A.
	4475		549	0 823	265 0	163 32	229 58	+21 8	Bo.
	4476		549	0 806	266 59	159 45	326 11	+21 2	Cº.
	4477		549	0.765	264 52	162 13	328 39	+22 23	aº.
	4478		549	0.761	265 33		324 11	+22 40	Ь°.
8.	4479 4480	97 474	550	0.345	355 19	113 10	279 36	+17 1	Ğ.
•	4481	7/ 4/4	551	0.968	256 16	204 1	285 48	+13 45	
	4482		551 551	0.954	257 50	206 35	288 22	+13 12	В.
	4483		551	0 955 0·946	259 21	205 38	287 25	+14 52	a.
	4484		552	0.940	260 37	206 58	288 45	+15 47	b.
	4485		552	0.884	261 48 963 44	188 56	270 43	+18 35	С.
	4486		552	0.888	263 44 263 32	109 1	270 48	+1726	D.
	4487		552	0.861	262 31	187 1	268 48	+18 47	E.
	4488		552	0 857	262 30	188 49	270 36	+1744	F.
	4489		552	0.865	263 15	185 37	267 24	+1734	c.
	4490		552	0.848	262 12	185 30	267 17	T18 29	ď.
	4491		552	0.840 .	263 29	184 56 183 37	266 43	+19 20	e.
	4492		553	0 372	71 30	183 37 104 54	265 24	+18 54	f.
	4493		553	0.375	72 56	103 7	186 41 184 54	- 4 20	G.
	4494		553	0.422	73 14	101 29	184 54 183 16	- 3 30	н.
	4495		553	0.431	74 31	99 20	181 7	- 5 49	g.
	4496		533	0.475	91 44	98 35	180 22	-615 -125	h.
	4497		554	0 982	45 32	42 44	124 31	-12 5 + 16 42	m.
	4498		554	0.984	45 22	43 28	125 15	+1042	м.
	4499			0.975	44 19	40 36	122 23	+17 31	N.
	4500	0 = = 0 C		0.975	46 4	44 19	126 6	+18 36	0.
	4501	97.506		0 970	256 37	204 12	285 32	+13 50	Α.
1	4502			0.956	257 48	207 0	288 20	+13 9	В.
1	4503			0 956	259 17	205 54	287 14	+14 55	a.
	4504 4505			0.947	260 30	207 13	288 33	+15 42	b.
	4506			0 897	262 2	189 11	270 31	+18 42	C.
	4507			0.886	263 57	189 25	270 45	+17 25	D.
	4508			0·890 0·863	263 25 262 25	187 17	268 37	-18 48	E.
	4509			0·803 : 0·859	262 25 262 16	159 3	270 23	+17 48	F.
	4510			9867 ⊦	263 7	185 48	267 8	+17 31	c.
	4511			0.850	262 10	186 1 185 13	267 21	+18 35	d.
	4512			-842	263 38	184 2	266 23	+19 15	е.
	4513			1.370	71 34	105 9	265 22 186 29	+18 50	f.
Ì	4514			374	73 5	103 32	184 52	- 4 22	G.
	4515			421	73 36	101 51	183 11	- 3 38 - 5 50	н.
	4516			1.428	74 27	99 51	181 11	- 5 50 - 6 11	g.
	4517			1.472	91 12	UU UI	*~ 1 I	- 0 11	h

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot
1864.		•					1		
Apr. 8.	4518	97.506	554	0.980	45 38	43 6	124 26	+16 44	M.
	4519	1 1	554	0.982	45 19	43 46	125 6	+17 41	N.
	4520		554	0.974	44 27	40 55	122 15	+17 33	n.
	4521	00000	554	0.973	46 25	44 35	125 55	+18 39	0.
9.	4522	98-682	552	0.978	257 16	202 50	267 29	+17 31	A'
	4523	1 1	552	0.972	257 44	200 35	265 14	+18 29	A ²
	4524 4525	1 1	552 552	0.971	259 18 258 39	205 46	270 25	+19 16	Aª.
	4526	1 1	552	0.971	257 37	204 47 201 9	269 26 265 48	+17 59 + 18 31	a. b.
	4527		552	0.968	258 17	201 9 201 49	266 28	+18 0	C.
	4528		552	0.959	260 22	200 31	265 10	+17 22	d.
	4529	1 1	552	0.953	260 7	201 26	266 5	+19 14	e.
	4530	1 1	553	0.117	104 1	119 6	183 45	-24	B.
	4531	1 1	553	0.123	105 56	115 58	180 37	- 4 21	Bi.
	4532		553	0.127	103 23	120 37	185 16	- 5 28	B2.
	4533	1 1	553	0.192	94 33	116 14	180 53	- 6 35	f.
	4534	1	553	0.195	95 36	114 29	179 8	_ 3 10	g.
	4535	1	553	0.199	93 53	119 17	183 56	_ 2 10	Б.
	4536		553	0.295	115 58	116 58	181 37	-13 58	i.
	4537	1 1	553	0.283	116 59	115 30	180 9	-12 31	k.
1	4538	1	554	0.883	44 57	58 47	123 26	+15 27	D.
!	4539	i 1	554	0.884	44 51	58 6	122 45	+17 27	E.
1	4540		554	0.896	45 48	60 14	124 53	+1658	F.
	4541	1 1	554	0.884	47 13	60 34	125 13	+1711	G.
į.	4542	i l	554	0.905	46 37	60 51	125 30	+1731	x1.
, !	4543		554	0.911	45 9	60 11	124 50	+18 5	x2.
1	4544		554	0.921	47 28	62 17	126 56	+18 36	x³.
1	4545	98.692	552	0.979	257 28	203 4	267 35	+1728	A1.
	4546		552	0.972	257 53	200 39	265 10	+18 28	A2.
ì	4547 4548		552	0.972	259 14	206 7	270 38	+ 19 21	A3.
	4549	1	552	0.973	258 44 257 25		269 30	+17 58	a.
	4550		552 552	0.966 0.968	257 25 258 26	201 26 202 9	265 57 266 40	+18 30	b.
	4551	1	552	0.959	260 52	202 9 200 34	265 5	+1755 $+1725$	e.
-	4552	1	552	0.955	260 18	200 34	266 11	$+17 25 \\ +19 15$	d. e.
- 1	4553	1	553	0.115	104 8	119 24	183 55	-210	в.
	4554	į	553	0.120	106 4	116 10	180 41	- 4 19	$\mathbf{B}^{\mathbf{i}}$.
- 1	4555	1	553	0.128	103 37	121 5	185 36	- 5 34	B2.
1	4556	i	553	0.190	94 27	116 38	181 9	- 6 31	f.
1	4557	1	553	0.193	95 50	114 24	178 55	- 3 14	g.
	4558	1	553	0.200	93 59	119 26	183 57	- 2 11	ĥ.
1	4559	Ì	553	0.292	116 7	117 13	181 44	- 13 50	i.
	4560		553	0.281	117 2	115 46	180 17	-12 36	k.
	4561	İ	554	0.881	44 47	59 3	123 34	+15 30	D.
1	4562		554	0.880	44 45	58 10	122 41	+17 29	E.
-	4563	1	554	0.895	45 58	60 30	125 1	+17 14	F.
1	4564	1	554	0.882	47 6	60 41	125 12	+17 22	G.
ř.	4565	1	554	0.901	46 22	61 5	125 36	+17 35	x1.
į	4566	ļ	554	0.911	44 57	60 23	124 54	+18 9	x2.
	4567		554	0.919	47 26	62 32	127 3	+18 43	x3.
11.	4568	100-428	553	0.344	230 31	145 3	184 46	- 3 16	A.
-	4569	1	553	0.342	231 28	144 5	183 58	- 2 15	В.
1	4570	a de la companya de l	553	0.287	222 27	141 16	181 9	- 4 21	c.
	4571	1	553	0.289	222 54	141 11	181 4	- 5 4	a.
1	4572	1	553	0.308	198 46	140 0	179 53	-12 44	b.
- 1	4573	1	554	0.628	32 17	78 35	118 28	+16 36	D.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No	Mean Tof Sun picture	- Group in	Control	Angle of Position	Longitud from Nod	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spo
1864.					-				1
Apr. 11	. 457	4 100-42	8 554	0.634	9 - 1				-
•	457		554	0.644	33 25	10 20		+18 29	E.
	457	6	554	0.669	35 14 38 14	77 31	117 24	+17 31	F.
	457		554	0.702	40 49	83 38	123 31	+18 29	G.
	4578		554	0.695	36 51	82 41 75 32	122 34	+16 2	H.
	4579		554	0.721	37 32	76 19	115 25	+18 58	c.
	4580		554	0.724	40 44	77 7	116 12	+18 33	d.
	4581		554	0.711	41 16	77 56	117 49	+17 41 + 17 36	e.
	4583		554	0.732	41 23	74 34	114 27		f.
	4584			0.347	230 24	145 43	184 39	$ +17 \ 45 $ $ -3 \ 15 $	g.
	4585		553	0.346	231 49	144 37	183 33	- 2 21	A. B.
	4586		553 553	0.290	222 46	141 55	180 51	- 4 25	C.
	4587		553	0.292	223 11	141 28	180 24	- 5 0	a.
	4588		554	0.310	198 40	140 28	179 24	-12 41	b.
	4589		554	0.632	32 19	78 58	117 54	+16 41	D.
	4590		554	0.641	33 22 35 40	78 46	117 42	+18 25	E.
	4591	1	554	0.665	38 31	78 5 83 56	117 1	+17 30	F.
	4592	1	554	0.700	40 22	83 56	122 52	+18 31	G.
	4593	;	554	0.692	37 0	75 49	122 0 114 45	+15 54	H.
	4594	:	554	0.718	37 49	76 39		+18 57	c.
	4595	1	554	0.720	40 35	77 24	115 35 116 20	+18 30	d.
	4596		554	0.708	41 19	78 19	117 15	+17 36 +17 40	e.
12.	4597	101.40	554	0.729	41 28	74 50	113 46	+17 49	f.
12.	4598 4599	101-464	553	0.533	236 22	154 6	179 18	-237	g. Aº.
	4600	:	553	0.530	237 38	157 19	182 31	- 3 44	B.
	4601	į	553	0.481	232 39	158 12	183 24	- 6 18	Cº.
	4602	i	553 553	0.477	233 6	156 42	181 54	- 5 7	aº.
	4603	1	554	0.495	218 24	153 55	179 7	-12 59	b°.
	4604		554	0.492	24 7	91 4	116 16	+17 23	M.
	4605		554	0.501	24 58 33 36	97 16	122 28	+18 9	N.
	4606		554	0.533	33 36 31 27	97 59	123 11	+18 55	o.
;	4607		554	0.528	29 9	89 7 89 53	114 19	+15 44	m.
	4608		554	0.540	33 12	87 47	115 5 112 59	+17 13	n.
13.	4609	102.499	553	0.722	234 19	170 46	112 59	+17 47	0.
i	4610	1	553	0.719	235 41	169 1	179 32	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	a.
1	4611	1	553	0.666	232 46	171 33	182 4	- 4 9 - 5 58	b
-	4612 4613	1	553	0.662	232 49	172 43	183 14	- 3 32	c. d.
	4614	1	554	0.406	355 32	111 57	122 28	+17 25	Α.
-	4615	!	554 554	0.402	357 51	103 36	114 7	+17 44	В.
	4616	1 !	554	0.396	359 14	102 8	112 39	+18 19	č.
	4617		554	0.420	0 23	113 17	123 48	+15 31	D.
	4618		554	0.435	1 30	102 27	112 58	+18 32	е.
ĺ	4619	!		0.431	8 57 10 41	103 40 106 34	114 11	+17 6	f.
1	4620			0.446	10 41	106 34	117 5	+18 15	g.
14.	4621	103-543		- 0 .	234 11	184 25	118 5 180 7	+18 22	h.
1	4622				235 28	188 54	180 7 184 36	- 4 7	M.
	4623				317 9	128 7	123 49	- 2 51	N.
15.	4624	104 493			234 28	198 20	180 34	+18 37 $-4 19$	0.
1	4625			0.926	232 39	203 3	185 17	- 4 19 - 3 2	A. B.
-	4626			0.454	291 27	141 40	200 - 1	$+18 \ 35$	В. С.
	4627	1		0.642	68 12	92 29	74 43	- 6 24	M.
1	4628			0.654	69 44	92 37	74 51	- 6 38	N.
ł	4629	1	555 (0.655	71 12	93 56	76 10	- 8 4	o.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.					o /	. ,	0 1	0 '1	
Apr. 15.	4630	104.493	555	0.661	72 51	93 59	76 13	- 8 2i	m.
-	4631		556	0.922	49 47	67 14	49 28	+ 9 34	n.
	4632		556	0.917	50 8	69 3	51 17	+10 14	0.
18.	4633	107-482	554a	0.976	253 21 66 24	220 39	160 29 23 22	+827 + 439	G.
	4634		556a	0.805 0.817		83 32 83 7	23 22 22 57		A. B.
	4635		556a $556a$	0.817	67 39 68 11	79 21	19 11	$+ 4 41 \\ - 1 10$	C.
1	4636		556a	0.852	69 56	78 43	18 33	- 0 11	Ď.
1	4637 4638	1	556b	0.840	44 30	77 17	17 7	+21 38	a.
	4639	1	5568	0.855	44 55	76 19	16 9	+21 21	ь.
. 9.	4640	108-451	556a	0.642	64 35	96 54	22 59	+ 1 4	M.
	4641	100 101	556a	0.700	66 58	92 13	18 18	- 0 2	N.
1	4642	108-484	556a	0.640	64 28	97 18	22 55	+ 1 7	M.
	4643	1	556a	0.697	67 10	92 29	18 6	+ 0 5	N.
20.	4644	109-444	556a	0.464	66 37	110 31	22 31	+ 2 16	A.
	4645		556a	0.471	67 44	109 54	21 54	+ 1 53	В.
	4646	I	556n	0.503	69 9	105 25	17 25	- 0 2	a.
1	4647		556a	0.511	69 27	105 23	17 23	+ 014	b.
	4648		556c	0.862	61 25	77 54	349 54	+819	C.
	4649	i	556d	0.950	44 38	56 12	328 12	+26 33	D.
21.	4650	110.610	556a	0.243	62 26	128 0	23 28	+ 2 28	Aº.
	4651	١.	556a	0.245	62 45	126 41	22 9	+ 2 0	Bo.
	4652		556a	0.306	66 34	122 36	18 4	+ 0 6	a°.
	4653	1	556a	0.308	66 12	122 8	17 36	+ 0 13	b°.
	4654	1	556c	0.724	57 54	94 40	350 8	+ 7 28	C.
00	4655		556d	0.814	39 4	73 58	329 24	+25 35	D.
22.	4656	111.465	556a	0.062	70 49 70 58	136 41	20 1	$+134 \\ +27$	M.
	4657	111 515	556a 556a	0.055	$70 58 \\ 71 14$	136 27 137 35	19 47 20 12	$^{\circ}$ + 2 7 + 1 39	N. M.
	4658	111.515	5561	0.060	71 14	137 33	19 40	+ 2 6	N.
23.	4659	110.446	556 z	0.208	245 13	151 19	20 44	+ 0 14	A.
200	4660 4661	112.446	556a	0.211	245 52	151 48	20 53	+ 0 17	A.
25.	4662	112.409	556a	0.594	238 47	179 32	19 15	- 0 12	Aº.
26.	4663	115.639	1)	0 0 0 0 1	200 1	113 02	13 10		1
~00	4664	115.654	11.,	1		1		•	
29.	4665	118.521	No spo	ts.		:	r .		
	4666	118-549	: }						
May 3.	4667	122-545	557	0.340	240 31	169 20	255 30	- 3 28	M.
•	4668		557	0.339	239 54	168 21	254 31	- 2 38	M1.
	4669		557	0.328	241 3	167 43	253 53	- 3 54	m.
	4670	1	557	0.314	234 38	164 36	250 46	- 4 22	n.
	4671		557	0.297	232 16	164 11	250 21	4 16	0.
	4672		557	0.285	230 27	100 10	249 26	- 5 44	p.
	4673	i	557a	0.696	73 22	105 4	191 14	- 6 37	A.
	4674		558	0.982	54 27	69 3	155 13	+13 13	B.
	4675	100.600	558	0.980	55 2 241 7	67 12	153 22	+12 54	B1.
	4676	122.622	557	0.344	241 7	168 47	255 16 253 52	- 3 32 - 2 40	M¹.
	4677 4678	1	557	0.333	240 13	168 22	253 52	- 2 40 - 3 49	m.
	4679	1	557	0.316	235 0	166 10	253 27	- 3 49 - 4 30	n.
	4679	ł	557	0.301	232 42	165 3	250 8	- 4 30 - 4 19	0.
	4681	1	557	0.287	230 29	163 47	248 52	-540	p.
	4682	1	557a	0.696	73 12	105 36	190 41	- 6 38	A.
	4683		558	0.979	55 1	70 11	155 16	+13 10	В.
	4684		558	0.977	55 34	67 33	152 38	+13 1	B1.
5.	4685	124.659	557	0.720	241 42	198 22	254 33	- 4 12	A.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Tim of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue	from	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spo
1864.					-				
May 5			557	0.718	240 59	199 s	1 228 -4		
	4687		557	0-715	239 16	194 17	255 19	- 4 2	B.
	4688		557	0.670	240 12	195 26	250 28	- 3 28	C.
	4689		557	0.654	239 24	194 29	251 37 250 40	- 2 19	a.
	4690 4691	1	557	0.645	238 53	192 54	249 5	- 2 57	ь.
	4692	İ	558	0.448	42 22	100 20	156 31	- 3 11	e.
	4693	1	558	0.452	42 37	99 11	155 22	+1244 $+1242$	D.
	4694		558	0.470	43 19	97 40	153 51	+13 19	E.
	4695		558	0.492	44 24	93 31	149 42	+14 2	d.
	4696		558	0.495	44 46	96 6	152 17	+11 57	e. f.
	4697	1	559 550	0.734	52 5	74 17	130 28	+14 22	G.
6.		125.484	559 557	0.741	52 33	73 43	129 54	+14 17	F.
•	4699	120 404	557	0.870	241 54	211 25	255 54	- 4 27	P.
	4700	: '	558	0.864	242 13	209 48	254 17	- 3 51	p.
	4701		558	0.317	26 42	112 37	157 6	+12 42	Q.
	4702	-	558	0·324 0·339	28 19	110 51	155 20	+11 16	R.
	4703	;	558	0.362	31 18	108 53	153 22	+12 19	q.
	4704	1	559	0.599	34 28 47 2	110 7	154 36	+13 36	r.
	4705	1	559	0.610	48 11	85 11	129 40	+1459	S.
	4706	125.530	557	0.873	242 3	85 40	130 9	+15 2	s.
	4707		557	0.866	242 54	211 58	255 48	- 4 30	P.
	4708		558	0.315	27 19		254 24	- 3 46	р.
	4709		558	0.321	28 11	113 5	156 55	+12 44	Q.
	4710		558	0.336	30 47	109 41	155 34	+11 22	R.
	4711	1	558	0.360	34 29	111 10	153 31 155 0	+12 29	q.
	4712		559	0.596	47 20	85 52	129 42	+13 37	r.
	4713	1	559	0.608	48 10	86.35	130 25	+15 2 + 15 0	S.
7.	4714	126.480	557	0.957	241 24	226 6	256 28	$^{+15}_{-327}$	s.
	4715	,	558	0.207	330 29	123 39	154 1	+12 22	A.
:	4716	1	558	0.211	342 38	122 15	152 37	+13 4	В.
	$\frac{4717}{4718}$		558	0.519	354 7	123 20	153 42	+10 58	C. D.
	4719		558	0.235	329 52	118 54	149 16	+12 24	а.
	4720		558	0.553	338 40	120 33	150 55	+12 29	b.
1	4721		558	0.241	0 14	118 7	148 29	+11 33	e.
	4722	1	559	0.880	46 46	$98 \ 35$	128 57	+14 43	M.
	4723	i .	559 559	0.894	45 3	99 35	129 57	+15 26	N.
10.	4724	129.638	558	0.911	43 18	100 59	131 21	+15 55	n.
i	4725	1.25 000	558	0.685	277 22 276 31	195 18	180 52	+12 7	A.
	4726		558	0 698	275 13	196 37	182 11	+12 19	В.
	4727		558	0.712	277 54	193 49 194 21	179 23 179 55	+11 12	a.
1	4728		560	0.422	20 7	139 47	125 21	+13 54	b.
12.		131.530	560	0.364	308 40	170 29	129 12	+21 31 +20 24	C
i	4730	!	560	0.375	307 38	169 11	129 12 127 54	+20 24 +21 31	M.
į	4731	1 .	560	0.382	308 12	170 47	129 30	+19 26	N.
1	4732		561	0.870	82 19	101 26	60 9	- 7 48	0.
	4733	1	561	0.869	81 15	100 54	59 37	- 6 20	A. B.
1	4734	1	561	0.883	82 24	99 32	58 15	- 8 3	C.
i	4735 4736		561	0.877	83 33	. 97 42	56 25	- 8 8	a.
į	4736	1	561	0.892	80 30	95 4	53 47	- 6 27	b.
13.	4738	190.511		0.897	79 26	99 37	58 20	- 7 53	c.
	4739	132-511	560 561		287 28	184 32	129 21	+17 28	A.
	4740			0.701	81 9	116 2	60 51	- 7 14	В.
j	4741	1		0·717 0·719	81 26	115 46	60 35	- 6 33	b.
		1	201	0 / 19	82 8	111 31	56 20	- 7 51	C.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.					-9 -4	å	57 44	- 7 ² 3	D.
May 13.	4742	132-511	561	0.744	82 34	112 55	58 3	- 8 38	c.
100	4743		561	0.763	81 40	113 14	56 8	- 6 39	d.
	4744		561	0.751	83 57	111 19	55 12	- 6 1	e.
1	4745		561	0.784	83 34	110 23	130 48	+17 24	M.
14.	4746	133-536	560	0.709	282 31	200 32		+17 23	N.
	4747		560	0.692	281 22	198 51	129 7 131 33	+16 39	m.
1	4748		560	0.733	280 53	201 17	128 50	+15 13	n.
	4749	1	560	0.745	278 57	198 34	61 31	- 6 26	A.
	4750		561	0-497	91 12	131 15	55 17	- 6 30	В
	4751	1	561	0.502	91 19	125 1		- 7 38	Č.
	4752	1	561	0.513	90 54	125 46		- 6 12	D.
	4753	1	561	0.550	91 33	130 41	60 57	- 7 40	E.
	4754		561	0.541	89 5	124 37		- 7 41	a.
	4755		561	0.533	89 10	132 3	62 19	$-741 \\ -89$	b.
	4756		561	0.570	88 12	129 56	60 12	-89 -757	c.
	4757		561	0.571	87 29	127 22	57 38		d.
	4758	1	561	0.585	86 44	128 10	58 26		e.
	4759	1	561	0.587	87 17	128 14	58 30	8 14	A.
15.	4760	134.482	560	0.800	271 15	212 13	129 4	+17 28	B.
10.	4761	101 102	560	0.802	272 12	214 35	131 26	+17 20	C.
	4762	i	560	0.763	286 48	213 28	130 19	+18 53	
	4763		560	0.767	287 26	210 20	127 11	+16 37	a.
	4764		560	0.782	286 31	215 46	132 37	+15 48	b. D.
	4765	1	561	0.314	94 11	143 44	60 35	- 6 22	E.
	4766	1	561	0.321	94 54	145 2	61 53	- 6 46	F.
		Ì	561	0.316	93 29	146 8	62 59	- 7 45	
	4767 4768	1	561	0.320	95 59	140 38	57 29	- 7 58	d.
	4769	1	561	0.333	96 17	137 20	54 11	- 8 35	e.
		1	561	0.339	92 31	138 32	55 23	- 6 18	
	4770		561	0.401	91 10	142 41	59 32	- 6 14	G.
	4771		561	0.387	93 0	141 52	58 43	- 7 33	i g. H
			561	0.410	94 46	143 18	60 9	- 7 50	
	4773		561	0.412	93 18	139 1	55 52	- 7 44	h.
	4774		561	0.417	92 54	141 15	, 58 6	- 6 30	K
	4775	İ	561	0.405	94 26	137 33	54 24	- 6 22	k.
	4776	134.490		0.801	271 28	212 18	129 2	+17 30	A
	4777.	194.490	560	0.804	272 24	214 36	131 20	+17 25	B
	4778		560	0.765	287 13	213 34	130 18	+19 4	C
	4779		560	0.769	287 54	210 16	127 0	+16 44	a.
	4780		560	0.783	286 50	216 0	132 44	+15 43	h.
	4781	. 1	561	0.312	94 42	143 55	60 39	- 6 29	j D
	4782		561	0.319	94 51	144 58	61 42	- 6 47	E
	4783		561	0.315	93 26	146 24	63 8	- 7 48	F
i	4784		561	0.319	96 4	140 42	57 26	-83	d
1	4785		561	0.332	96 28	137 26	54 10	- 8 31	e.
1	4786		561	0.336	92 15	1	55 29	- 6 17	f.
3	4787		561	0.400	91 1		59 36	- 6 10	G
1	4788		561	0.385	93 24	1	58 40	- 7 25	
1	4789			0.408	95 14		60 6	- 7 54	
	4790		561	0.410	93 2			- 7 42	
1	4791		561 561	0.416	92 55	1	1	- 6 26	
1	4799		561	0.404	94 28		1	- 6 17	
	479		1 - 0 -	0.942	274 26		1	+17 24	
1	6. 4794		560	0.938	273 8			+16 30	
	479		560	0.910	276 59			+18 21	
	4796) l	เองบ	1 0 910			128 39	+17 36	i l

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue	Contro	Angle of Position.		Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot
1864.									
May 16		135-487	561	0.199	153 17	159 32	62 s	8 . 4	_
	4799	1	561	0.202	154 6	156 49		- 6 15	P.
	4800		561	0.204	155 52	155 10	59 25	- 6 46	Q.
	4801	į	561	0.211	140 53	153 14	57 46	- 8 34	R.
	4802		561	0.223	138 39	155 35	55 50	- 8 53	S.
	4803		561	0.240	129 46	152 58	58 11 55 34	- 8 19	p.
	4804		561	0.244	126 16	151 46	54 22	- 7 47 - 7 13	q.
	4805		561	0.251	122 24	159 22	61 58	- 7 13 - 6 48	r.
	4806		561	0.239	120 26	158 23	60 59	- 7 0	S.
	4807	4	561	0.265	118 29	157 23	59 59	- 8 25	T.
	4808		561	0.258	120 50	155 54	58 30	- 6 27	T'.
	4809	1 1	561	0.264	117 33	155 30	58 6	- 6 14	t.
	4810		562	0.382	37 46	144 29	47 5	+15 23	
	4811		562	0.389	39 24	141 36	44 12	+15 16	A. B.
	4812 4813	1 1	562	0.412	40 25	140 31	43 7	+17 48	
	4814	197.700	562*	0.434	41 0	139 46	42 24	+16 54	a. b.
	4815	135.523	560	0.944	273 54	228 28	130 33	+17 22	M.
	4816	1	560	0.939	273 41	224 10	126 15	+16 36	N.
	4817	1	560	0.908	277 4	228 47	130 52	+18 18	m.
	4818	1 1	560	0.916	276 38	226 35	128 40	+17 35	n.
	4819	1	561	0.196	154 19	160 2	62 7	- 6 14	P.
	4820	1 1	561	0.199	154 42	157 55	60 0	- 6 43	Q.
	4821	! !	561	0.500	157 3	155 35	57 40	- 8 32	R.
	4822	1	561	0.208	141 12	153 39	55 44	- 8 50	S.
	4823		561 561	0.219	139 6	156 12	58 17	- 8 17	p.
	4824		561	0.236	128 44	153 36	55 41	- 7 45	q.
	4825	l :	561	0.241	125 28	152 15	54 20	- 7 12	r.
	4826	1 1	561	0.247	123 1	159 57	62 2	- 6 50	s.
	4827		561	0.238 0.262	119 38	158 50	60 55	-72	T.
	4828	1 1	561	0.255	117 25	157 45	59 50	- 8 28	T1.
	4829	[[561	0.261	121 44	156 22	58 27	- 6 25	t.
	4830	1 1	562	0.380	117 20	156 5	58 10	- 6 16	t¹.
	4831		562	0.385	36 44 39 29	145 5	47 10	+15 25	A.
	4832		562	0.410		142 15	44 20	+15 17	В.
	4833		562	0.431	40 27 41 58	141 9	43 14	+17 52	a.
17.	4834	136-507	560	0.995	267 47	140 20	42 25	+16 55	b.
1	4835		561	0.172	174 33	240 14	128 21	+17 36	N.
ł	4836		561	0.176	175 18	172 8	60 15	- 7 28	A.
	4837	1	561	0.181	183 46	175 23 169 44	63 30	- 6 46	В.
	4838	j	561	0.194	177 12	171 52	57 51	- 6 28	c.
	4839	1	561	0.195	179 19	168 50	59 59 56 57	- 6 58	D.
	4840	1	561	0.202	184 52	170 8	59 15	- 7 11 - 8 23	а.
i	4841	!	561	0.224	185 45	169 57	58 4	- 8 23 - 7 33	b.
İ	4842		561	0.219	191 25	173 18	61 25	- 7 36	c.
1	4843	į	561	0.238	188 13	173 11	61 18	- 8 14	d.
	4844		561	0.224	195 9	168 41	56 48	- 8 57	F.
	4845			0.241	195 6	169 14	57 21	- 7 7	f. G.
	4846			0.237	196 58	170 49	58 56	- 7 16	
	4847	1		0.245	194 54	168 38	56 45	- 6 46	g. H.
-	4848	1		0.243	197 39	167 49	55 56	- 8 4	b.
	4849	İ		0.273	358 2	158 9	46 16	+15 14	K.
	4850	I		0.278	359 27	159 12	47 19	+16 1	k.
	4851			0.301	7 11	157 33	45 40	+16 50	Ö.
1	4852 4853	1		0.312	7 48	155 46	43 53	+17 27	0.
- 1	1000	1	562	0.324	8 39	154 49	42 56	+17 51	P.

^{*} Group No. 562 was visible on the 15th, but partially hidden by the wire of the telescope, hence positions not determinable.

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spor
1864.								1	1
May 17.	4854	136-507	562	0.336	11 16	154 51	42 58	+17 21	Q.
	4855		562	0.325	10 14	156 15	44 22	+16 56	p.
	4856		562	0.326	12 20	157 4	45 11	+15 23	9.
	4857	136-520	560	0.996	267 28	240 31	128 29	+17 29	N.
	4858		561 561	0.173	175 2	172 14	60 12 63 25	- 7 34 - 6 50	A. B.
	4859 4860		561	0·176 0·180	175 47 184 19	175 27 169 52	63 25 57 50	- 6 50 - 6 29	C.
	4861		561	0.196	184 19 177 0	171 10	59 8	- 6 55	D.
1	4862		561	0.197	178 53	168 48	56 46	- 7 10	a.
	4863		561	0.203	184 40	170 19	58 17	- 8 28	b.
	4864		561	0.225	185 36	170 19	58 17	- 7 39	C.
	4865		561	0.221	191 12	173 43	61 41	- 7 28	d.
- 1	4866		561	0.240	188 31	173 50	61 48	- 8 10	F.
1	4867	1	561	0.223	195 42	168 8	56 6	- 8 59	f.
	4868	1	561	0.240	195 50	169 33	57 31	- 7 8	G.
]	4869	1	561	0.236	197 4	170 39	58 37	- 7 17	g. H.
	4870		561	0.246	194 59	168 42	56 40	- 6 44	
1	4871		561	0.244	198 14	167 9	55 7	- 8 11	h.
į	4872		562	0.271	358 31	158 29	46 27	+15 17	K.
1	4873	! !	562	0.275	359 46	159 26	47 24	+15 54	k.
;	4874	1 1	562	0.302	6 53	157 21	45 19	+16 44	O.
-	4875	1	562	0.310	6 49	155 17	43 15	+17 25	0.
1	4876	!	562 562	0.325	8 31 11 45	154 18 154 32	42 16 42 30	+17 55	P.
	4877 4878		562	0·335 0·326	11 45 10 54	154 32	42 30	$+17 20 \\ +16 51$	Q.
i	4879		562	0.325	12 23	157 38	45 36	+10 31	р.
18.	4880	137-479	561	0.320	304 47	186 14	60 35	- 7 55	q. A.
10.	4881	10, 4,9	561	0.322	305 36	184 1	58 22	- 7 22	В.
i	4882	1 1	561	0.334	307 20	188 1	62 22	- 6 21	Č.
1	4883		561	0.333	308 15	187 5	61 26	- 8 39	D.
	4884	1 1	561	0.298	309 2	185 27	59 48	- 7 28	E.
	4885	1 !	561	0.297	310 11	180 43	55 4	- 9 18	a.
1	4886	1 1	561	0.282	312 20	186 33	60 54	- 7 33	b.
- 1	4887		561	0.291	314 23	180 32	54 53	- 6 25	c.
1	4888	,	561	0.294	315 25	181 5	55 26	- 6 8	d.
- 1	4889	1	561	0.302	317 51	182 25	56 46	- 6 33	e.
	4890	1	561	0.303	324 37	183 43	58 4	- 5 14	f.
1	4891		561	0.277	326 56	185 5	59 26	- 7 28	F.
1	4892	1	561 561	0.279	324 5	181 28	55 49 60 20	- 8 46 - 7 25	G. H.
	4893	i	561	0.265	325 28	185 59			
	4894 4895	1	562	0.324	328 39 229 33	186 49 173 35	61 10 47 56	-734 + 1449	M.
	4895 4896	:	562	0.324	229 33 225 12	173 33	46 2	+14 49	N.
	4897		562	0.322	223 10	170 47	45 8	+15 12	Ö.
	4898		562	0.349	222 49	171 8	45 29	+16 28	m.
	4899	1	562	0.356	221 11	167 40	42 1	+14 34	n.
	4900		562	0.374	220 51	168 53	43 14	+18 33	0.
	4901		562	0.381	221 43	169 51	44 12	+17 48	M°
	4902		562	0.394	219 37	171 58	46 19	+17 3	N^{θ} .
	4903	1	562	0.364	218 19	173 22	47 43	+16 57	O^{θ} .
	4904	i	562	0.402	218 29	169 17	43 38	+15 46	m¹.
	4905	1	562	0.398	217 39	167 48	42 9	+14 22	n¹.
	4906	-	562	0.417	217 16	168 15	42 36	+15 33	0^1 .
1	4907		562	0.424	216 48	168 30	42 51	+15 35	S.
1	4908		562	0.433	215 19	170 0	44 21	+15 19	8.
1	4909		562	0.431	215 30	172 48	47 9	+14 58	R.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot
1864.					1				
May 18.	4910	137-494	561	0.321	304 10	186 34	60 41	- 7 59	A.
	4911		561	0.324	395 53	184 14	58 21	- 7 16	B.
	4912		561	0.336	307 52	188 39	62 46	- 6 19	C.
	4913	1	561	0.334	308 15	187 49	61 56	- 8 30	D.
1	4914		561	0.301	309 49	185 48	59 55	- 7 25	E.
	4915		561	0.300	310 24	181 15	55 22	- 9 32	a.
1	4916	İ	561 561	0.285	312 25	186 14	60 21	- 7 34	b.
ŀ	4917 4918	i	561	0.294	314 50	180 32	54 39	- 6 28	c.
	4919	1	561	0.297	315 28	181 21	55 28	- 6 17	d.
1	4920		561	0.307	318 11	182 11	56 18	- 6 32	e.
į	4921		561	0.305	324 34	184 26	58 33	- 5 16	f.
	4922		561	0.280	326 3	185 7	59 14	- 7 24	F.
	4923		561	0-282 0-266	324 20	181 19	55 26	- 8 41	G.
1	4924		561	0.568	325 37 328 27	186 20	60 27	- 7 32	H.
	4925		562	0.326	229 15	187 39	61 46	- 7 30	g.
	4926	1	562	0.330	225 44	173 49 172 27	47 56 46 34	+14 40	M.
	4927		562	0.331	223 36	172 27	45 30	+15 56	N.
	4928	1 !	562	0.353	223 25	170 53		$+15 7 \\ +16 22$	О.
	4929	:	562	0.360	221 12	168 31	45 0 42 38		m.
	4930	į	562	0.375	220 54	169 15	43 22	+14 47	n.
	4931	,	562	0.382	221 14	170 0		+18 28	0.
İ	4932		562	0.397	219 15	172 21	44 7 46 28	+17 47	Mº.
	4933	i	562	0.368	218 27	173 18	47 25	+1710 + 1659	Nº. Oº.
	4934		562	0.403	218 57	169 25	43 32	+15 59 +15 50	m¹.
į	4935		562	0.405	217 48	168 49	42 56	+13 36	
į	4936	!	562	0.419	217 18	168 29	42 36	+15 32	n1.
į	4937		562	0.427	216 51	167 57	42 4	+15 32	S.
i	4938		562	0.435	215 53	169 53	44 0	+15 26	8.
1	4939	1	562	0.436	215 13	172 54	47 1	+14 52	R.
19.	4940	138-494	561	0 472	276 16	200 58	60 55	- 7 54	S.
1	4941		561	0.464	278 57	202 13	62 10	- 8 56	P.
i	4942		561	0.456	277 3	199 59	59 56	- 5 32	Q.
1	4943		561	0.450	291 19	195 7	55 4	- 5 8	Ř.
***	4944	:	561	0.417	288 31	203 34	63 31	- 8 6	S.
	4945		561	0.423	285 24	194 40	54 37	- 7 53	p.
1	4946	t t	561	0.395	289 22	200 47	60 44	- 6 24	q.
1	4947	1	561	0.385	294 12	201 52	61 49	-67	r.
1	4948	1	562	0.551	231 47	188 53	48 50	+15 27	A.
	4949	1 1	562	0.536	231 44	186 31	46 28	+17 56	В.
-	4950	; !	562	0.530	230 33	184 34	44 31	+14 16	c.
made o	4951		562	0.519	228 6	185 3 5	45 32	+18 46	D.
-	4952	1 :	562	0.511	229 18	183 18	43 15	+16 11	a.
-	4953	1 1	562	0.499	227 7	186 38	46 35	+14 20	b.
-	4954		562	0.494	228 39	182 49	42 46	+13 32	c.
-	4955	1 1	562	0.495	227 40	182 14	42 11	+14 1	d.
	4956		562	0.486	227 16	184 40	44 37	+15 21	E.
- Anna	4957	1 :	562	0.482	227 55	185 28	45 25	+13 26	e.
1	4958		563	0.961	58 28	85 57	305 57	+ 6 33	х.
	4959		563	0.965	60 30	88 12	308 12	+ 7 52	Y.
Î	4960	1	563	0.973	62 20	90 6	310 6	+ 8 28	x.
i	4961	190,700	563	0.980	64 4	94 20	314 20	+ 9 39	y.
	4962	138.509	561	0.475	276 17	200 31	60 15	- 7 53	S.
	4963		561	0-466	278 41	202 43	62 27	- 9 2	Ρ.
j	4964		561	0.460	277 21	199 26	59 10	- 5 40	Q
1	4965	1	561	0.453	291 14	195 28	55 12	- 5 5	R.

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.					288 59	203 22	63 É	- ŝ ź	s.
May 19.	4966	138-509	561	0.419			54 29	- 7 33	p.
-	4967	1	561	0.427	285 30	194 45	60 10	- 6 29	q.
Į.	4968	1	561	0.400	289 57	201 38	61 22	- 6 16	r.
	4969	ļ	561	0.387	294 33	189 28	49 12	+15 22	A.
1	4970	1	562	0.552	231 57	187 10	46 54	+18 2	В.
	4971	1	562	0.537	231 11 230 4	184 40	44 24	+14 20	C.
	4972	-	562	0·536 0·524	228 6	185 27	45 11	+18 41	D.
1	4973		562	0.524	229 54	183 45	43 29	+16 16	a.
	4974		562 562	0.504	227 33	186 51	46 35	+14 16	b.
1	4975	j	562	0.497	228 25	183 2	42 46	+13 35	c.
	4976		562	0.499	227 20	183 3	42 47	+13 56	d.
	4977		562	0.488	227 5	184 24	44 8	+1520	E.
I	4978 4979		562	0.486	228 12	185 56	45 40	+13 18	e.
1	4919 4980	1	563	0.959	58 39	85 48	305 32	+ 6 32	X.
1	4981	1	563	0.964	60 32	88 12	307 56	+87	Y.
1	4982		563	0.972	62 50	90 1	309 45	+ 8 34	x.
1	4983	ĺ	563	0.980	64 25	94 44	314 28	+ 9 26	у-
20.	4984	139-480	561	0.712	237 37	213 54	59 52	- 7 3	A.
20.	4985	105 100	561	0.718	238 26	214 41	60 39	- 8 42	B.
1	4986		561	0.754	238 29	213 1	58 59	- 5 23	C.
I	4987		561	0.733	236 19	214 34	60 32	- 6 39	D
1	4988		561	0.788	236 18	213 16	59 14	- 8 18	8.
	4989		561	0.762	237 6	210 48	56 46	- 7 26	b.
	4990	-	561	0.769	235 45	208 13	54 11	- 6 11	c.
	4991		561	0.793	235 54	209 36	55 34	- 5 51	M M
	4992	1	562	0.564	274 19	200 5	46 3	+14 5 + 15 19	N
	4993	l	562	0.570	277 49	203 56	49 54	$+15 19 \\ +14 35$	ő
	4994	i	562	0.624	280 33	202 20	48 18	+16 22	m
	4995	1	562	0.655	282 23	199 54	45 52	+16 9	n.
	4996	į	562	0.682	282 29	202 59	48 57	+15 6	P.
	4997		563	0.830	58 45	104 5	310 3	+13 5	Q
	4998		563	0.862	59 40	102 36	308 34	+14 50	R
	4999		563	0.889	63 57	101 20	307 18	+13 49	p.
	5000	i	563	0.902	67 46	100 45	24 8	+18 25	: 5
	5001	ì	564	0.422	305 4		25 26	+19 14	1 5.
	5002	i	564	0.416	306 28		26 14	+18 36	s
	5003	100 400	564	0.391	308 13 237 57	180 16 213 46	59 32	- 7 9	A
	5004	139.493	561	0.715	237 57 238 40	214 37	60 23	- 8 40	B
	5005		561 561	0.721	238 26	212 50	58 36	- 5 26	C
	5006 5007		561	0.736	236 43	214 34	60 20	- 6 40	D
	5007		561	0.730	236 12	214 11	59 57	- 8 22	a.
	5009		561	0.765	237 27	210 30	56 16	- 7 25	b.
	5010		561	0.772	235 28	208 15	54 1	- 6 16	c.
	5010		561	0.795	235 29	209 33	55 19	- 5 54	d
	5011		562	0.566	274 29	200 26	46 12	+14 2	N
	5013		562	0.571	277 2	203 40	49 26	+15 22	N
	5014		562	0.625	280 39	203 12	48 58	+14 26	C
	5015	1	562	0.658	282 47	200 9	45 55	+16 24	n
	5016		562	0.685	282 43	203 22	49 8	+16 10	n
	5017	į	563	0.828	58 39	104 51	310 37	+15 5	F
	5018	1	563	0.859	59 57	102 33	308 19	+13 5	6
	5019	i	563	0.887	63 51	101 20	307 6	+14 55	F
	5020		563	0.900	67 57	101 2	306 48	+13 46	p
	5021		564	0.425	305 18	178 47	24 33	+18 20	S.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.						l			
May 20.	5022	139.493	564	0.417	306 1í	179 34	25 26	+19 15	S.
	5023		564	0.395	308 24	180 26	26 12	+18 46	s1.
24.	5024	143.602	564	0-888	269 59	238 3	25 32	+19 26	m.
	5025	İ	564	0.889	271 20	237 20	24 49	+17 32	n.
	5026		564	0.902	270 25	239 39	27 8	+18 50	0.
	5027	143-661	564	0.892	269 57	239 1	25 40	+1933	m.
	5028		564	0.895	271 2	238 34	25 13	+17 42	n.
27.	5029 5030	146-462	564 565	0.908	270 49	240 16	26 55	+18 54.	0.
21.	5031	140-402	565	0.420	262 25 260 33	199 17	306 12	+ 7 9	A.
	5032		565	0·444 0·454	260 33 259 40	198 29 195 36	305 24	+ 6 26	В.
ý.	5033		565	0.468	259 17	195 36 193 40	302 31 300 35	+ 8 40 + 8 12	C.
	5034		565	0.473	257 4	192 1	298 56	+ 9 31	a. b.
	5035	i	566	0.964	47 19	91 19	198 14	+21 25	S.
	5036		566	0.966	48 31	90 7	197 2	+22 38	8.
1	5037	146-509	565	0.424	263 3	199 43	305 58	+ 7 12	A.
1	5038		565	0.446	260 17	199 24	305 39	+ 6 31	В.
	5039	i	565	0.457	259 58	196 15	302 30	+ 8 34	C:
ı	5040		565	0.470	258 32	194 34	300 49	+ 8 11	a.
	5041		565	0.475	257 42	192 59	299 14	+ 9 42	b.
1	5042		566	0.962	47 26	91 51	198 16	+21 20	S.
	5043	1	5.66	0.965	48 21	90 56	197 11	+22 27	s.
28.	5044	147.455	565	0.622	268 46	211 10	304 0	+ 8 36	P.
1	5045	!	565	0.582	270 42	212 44	305 34	+ 7 42	Q.
1	5046	1	565	0.571	266 52	210 32	303 22	+ 8 11	R.
	5047 5048	i	566 566	0.872 0.884	$53 \ 45$ $54 \ 34$	106 19 105 57	199 9	+21 19	S.
	5049		567	0.512		105 57 203 48	198 47 296 38	$+20 39 \\ +18 26$	s. M.
	5050	!	567	0.521	283 6	206 14	299 4	+17 13	N.
1	5051		567	0.565	283 32	208 2	300 52	+1657	o.
i	5052	147-496	565	0.625	267 13	211 57	304 12	+ 8 30	P.
	5053	11, 150	565	0.584	270 9	213 13	305 28	+ 7 45	Q.
	5054	1	565	0.574	266 34	211 7	303 22	+ 8 12	Ř.
İ	5055		566	0.870	53 9	107 3	199 18	+21 20	S.
-	5056		566	0.882	54 40	106 30	198 45	+20 44	s.
	5057		567	0.515	282 6	204 25	296 40	$+18 \ 37$	M.
į	5058		567	0.525	283 57	207 0	299 15	+17 16	N.
	5059	l i	567 ,	0.568	282 10	208 42	300 57	+17 4	ο.
30.	5060	149.664	567	0.877	267 40	237 57	~33 ~1	+18 22	В.
	5061	! !	567	0.894	269 10	239 5	300 35	+17 16	b .
1	5062		566	0.609	33 26	135 32	197 2	+21 54	D.
1	$5063 \\ 5064$		566 568	0.611	34 1	137 34	199 4	+20 39	d.
1	5065	1 !	568	0.983	58 11 61 36	95 43 94 11	157 13 155 41	+853 + 739	A. a.
1	5066	1	568	0.986	64 58	96 21	157 51		a.
1	5067		569	0.954	87 43	102 51	164 21	+527 -1820	C.
1	5068	1 1	569	0.959	88 19	100 12	161 42	-18 20 -19 4	c.
	5069	1 1	570	0.992	86 12	89 19	150 49	-16 46	E.
	5070	1 1	570	0.994	85 13	90 38	152 8	-17 31	е.
1	5071	149.672	567	0.880	268 10	238 30	299 53	+18 25	В.
	5072		567	0.897	269 21	239 21	300 44	+17 22	b.
	5073		566	0 608	32 28	135 50	197 13	+22 6	Ď.
	5074		566	0.608	34 12	137 55	199 18	+20 44	d.
	5075		568	0.970	58 41	95 46	157 9	+ 8 46	A.
1	5076		568	0.981	60 59	94 30	155 53	+ 7 35	a.
1	5077	1 1	568	0.984	65 10	96 29	157 52	+ 5 22	a¹.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.			-00	0.050	87 33	103 11	164 34	-18° 15	c.
May 30.	5078	149-672	569	0.952		100 40	162 3	-18 58	c.
	5079		569	0.955	88 15 86 10	89 31	150 54	-16 40	E.
1	5080		570	0.990		91 2	152 25	-17 31	e.
	5081		570	0.989	85 9 302 55	213 50	207 15	+22 6	A.
June 4.	5082	154.464	566	0.641 0.645	302 33	214 56	208 21	+20 14	В.
1	5083	Į .	566 568	0.287	32 26	170 50	164 15	+10 25	M.
	5084	1	568	0.287	32 16	169 19	162 44	+ 8 39	N.
4	5985	!	568	0.231	35 36	170 20	163 45	+ 8 18	o.
	5086	1 .	568	0.308	34 20	155 43	149 8	+ 7 19	P.
- 1	5087		568	0.312	45 29	156 44	150 9	+ 7 27.	m.
1	5088	1	568	0.315	45 47	158 47	152 12	+98	n.
	5089 5090		568	0.324	35 54	164 28	157 53	+10 13	0.
	5091		568	0.338	53 33	166 48	160 13	+13 18	p.
	5091		568	0.310	50 33	163 8	156 33	+11 26	a.
	5092		568	0.399	49 1	154 32	147 57	+10 5	b.
	5094		568	0.384	56 58	158 17	151 42	+10 42	Q.
	5095	į	568	0.365	57 41	167 43	161 8	+11 6	Q'.
1	5096	1	568	0.366	36 31	165 47	159 12	+12 45	R.
	5097		568	0.402	36 17	159 22	152 47	+10 2	s.
	5098		568	0.385	59 56	159 42	153 7	+12 12	T.
	5099	İ	568	0.424	58 27	154 26	147 51	+11 35	r.
	5100	1	568	0.436	54 22	153 58	147 23	+ 9 47	. 9.
	5101	1	568	0.421	52 56	153 34	146 59	+ 8 19	t.
	5102	1	568	0.419	57 9	154 18	147 43	+12 25	u.
	5103	1	568	0.433	58 15	155 19	148 44	+1253	v.
	5104		569	0.224	168 48	178 20	171 45	-11 5	C.
	5105		560	0.236	164 46	176 29	169 54	-11 50	D.
	5106	1	569	0.237	157 58	169 22	162 47	-12 37	E.
	5107		569	0.254	159 3	172 4	165 29	-11 27	F.
	5108	i	569	0.258	155 18	174 43	168 8	13 35	G.
	5109		569	0.263	153 42	168 21 165 30	161 46	-13 53	c.
	5110		570	0.333	128 12	165 30 164 31	158 55 $157 56$	-12 55	d.
	5111		570	0.336	126 27	158 19	157 56 $151 44$	-15 55	e.
	5112		570	0.371	119 21 119 16	157 28	150 53	-16 28 $-14 43$	f.
	5113		570	0.385	122 54	155 13	148 38	-14 43	g. H.
	5114		570	0.370	125 43	156 54	150 19	-14 29	h.
	5115		570	0.394	116 45	157 39	151 4	-15 42	hi.
	5116		570 570	0.398	115 53	158 37	152 2	-12 40	K.
	5117	;	570	0.408	116 11	156 21	149 46	-10 13	k.
	5118		570	0.410	117 15	155 36	149 1	-10 35	1.
	5119 5120		571	0.594	51 2	142 51	136 16	+16 12	s.
	5121		571	0.596	52 8	137 27	130 52	+15 56	8
	5122	1	571	0.635	52 28	140 28	133 53	+17 26	X.
	5123		571	0.642	54 9	142 5	135 30	+17 45	x.
	5124	154.520	566	0.644	303 31	214 17	206 54	+22 13	A
	5125	. 191020	566	0.649	302 44	215 28	208 5	+20 13	B.
	5126	,	568	0.285	32 10	171 23	164 0	+10 31	M
	5127	1	568	0.288	31 54	169 54	162 31	+ 8 34	N.
	5128	1	568	0.312	35 55	170 41	163 18	+ 8 16	0
	5129		568	0.305	34 8	156 24	149 1	+ 7 14	P.
	5130		568	0.308	45 50	157 29	150 6	+ 7 21	m
	5131	i	568	0.310	45 41	159 33	152 10	+ 9 7	n.
	5132		568	0.321	36 3	164 37	157 14	+10 12	0.
	5133	1	568	0.335	53 25	166 59	149 36	+13 13	p.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- pieture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spe
1864.				 		-		-	
June 4.	5134	154-520	568	0.307	50° 17	163 29	3 - 8 - 4		
	5135		568	0.388	49 15	155 10	156 6	+11 34	a.
	5136		568	0.380	57 13	158 28	147 47 151 5	+10 1	b.
	5137		568	0.362	57 35	168 21	160 58	+10 50 +11 11	Q. Q'.
	5138	1	568	0.362	36 44	165 59	158 36	+12 44	R.
	5139		568	0.401	35 58	159 50	152 27	+10 6	S.
1	5140		568	0.380	60 5	159 57	152 34	+12 6	T.
1	5141		568	0.420	58 16	154 37	147 14	+11 40	r.
1	5142		000	0.430	54 43	154 18	146 55	+ 9 51	8.
	5143 5144		568 568	0.417	53 12	153 46	146 23	+ 8 28	t.
	5145	1 1	568	0.415	56 50	154 56	147 33	+12 34	u.
Ì	5146	i 1	569	0·430 0·221	58 17	155 27	148 4	+13 1	v.
- 1	5147		569	0.235	169 7 164 50	178 39	171 16	-11 16	C.
	5148	1	569	0.232	164 50 158 21	176 45	169 22	-11 54	D.
- 1	5149	!	569	0.250	158 47	169 40 172 18	162 17	-12 28	E.
1	5150	! !	569	0.255	155 19	172 18 175 12	164 55 167 49	-11 22	F.
į	5151	1	570	0.331	127 56	165 52	168 29	$-13 \ 31 \ -13 \ 3$	G.
- 1	5152		570	0.330	126 51	164 39	157 16	-13 3 -16 7	d.
	5153	1	570	0.367	119 30	158 29	151 6	-16 24	e. f.
1	5154	1	570	0.379	119 14	157 59	150 36	-14 41	
1	5155	İ	570	0.354	123 6	155 41	148 18	-13 36	g. H.
i	5156	1 .	570	0.365	125 50	157 28	150 5	-14 34	h.
i	5157		570	0.388	116 52	157 57	150 34	-15 40	h1.
1	5158	İ	570	0.336	116 9	158 46	151 23	-12 43	K.
i	5159		570	0.399	116 18	156 40	149 17	-10 19	k1.
	5160	,	570	0.406	117 24	156 43	149 20	-10 41	i.
	5161 5162	!	571	0.591	51 8	142 53	135 30	+16 18	S.
ĺ	5163		571 571	0.592	52 15	137 48	130 25	+16 4	S-
	5164		571	0.630 0.640	52 34	140 46	133 23	+17 25	Χ.
6.	5165	156.545	566	0.880	54 31 281 47	142 27	135 4	+17 41	X.
1	5166		566	0.884	282 2	243 25 245 0	207 19	+21 47	М.
	5167	- 1	568	0.374	285 19	194 39	208 54 158 33	+20 31	N.
	5168		568	0.365	286 26	198 29	162 23	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	A. B.
1	5169		568	0.357	286 37	191 35	155 29	+10 40	C.
1	5170		568	0.328	287 18	186 51	150 45	+11 43	D.
	5171	i	568	0.310	290 6	192 46	156 40	+10 26	а.
1	5172	;	568	0.348	289 45	195 3	158 57	+ 9 28	b.
į	5173		568	0.302	291 49	185 34	149 28	+12 27	e.
1	5174	*	568	0.301	292 43	188 33	152 27	+12 4	d.
į	5175	1	568	0.297	292 47	188 24	152 18	+11 46	E.
;	5176	1	568	0.282	298 39	189 6	153 0	+11 10	F.
1	5177		568 568	0.275	295 39	185 31	149 25	+ 9 10	G.
1	5178 . 5179 .		568	0.251	299 57	191 59	155 53	+11 33	н.
	5180		568	0.248	300 51	194 38	158 32	+10 2	e.
	5181	1	568	0.262	300 19 301 52	194 8	158 2	+11 54	f.
	5182	1	568	0.245	302 26	189 49 188 57	153 43 152 51	+11 52	g.
	5183	:	569	0.471	226 10	205 43	169 37	$+10 18 \\ -13 57$	h. Х.
1	5184		569	0.454	224 30	204 27	168 21	-13 37	
	5185	i		0.462	223 2	203 59	167 53	-11 18	х. Ү.
	5186	1		0.450	221 43	205 53	169 47	-13 33	у.
1	5187		570	0.310	200 39	192 6	156 0	-15 43	w.
1	5188		570	0.272	194 38	190 9	154 3	-1651	w.
1	5189	1	570	0.220	189 26	184 48	148 42	-13 14	v.

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.				0.231	185° 53	186 29	150 23	-14 35	٧.
une 6.	5190	156.545	570	0.320	6 41	172 45	136 39	+17 20	P.
1	5191		571 571	0.325	11 43	169 21	133 15	+17 2	Q.
- 1	5192	1	541	0.331	7 4	170 48	134 42	+16 21	R.
	5193	1	571	0.351	8 58	166 32	130 26	+15 11	s.
1	5194	1	571	0.361	8 19	165 34	129 28	+16 19	p.
}	5195	Ì	571	0.345	17 39	164 11	128 5	+1731	q.
	5196		571	0.347	19 55	165 29	129 23	+1529	r.
	5197	1	571	0.363	22 58	164 12	128 6	+18 32	8.
	5198	i	572	0.750	94 31	137 11	101 5	-1724	T.
	5199 5200		572	0.746	95 6	138 54	102 48	-17 9	t1.
	5200	1	572	0.822	93 21	132 19	96 13	-18 20	t".
	5202	1	572	0.829	92 13	131 52	95 46	-18 29	u.
7.	5203	157-521	566	0.963	281 49	258 47	208 50	+20 27	A.
7.	5204	10, 021	566	0.965	280 14	258 46	208 49	+22 8	а.
	5205	1	568	0.522	275 0	207 11	157 14	+950	В.
	5206	i	568	0.517	277 17	196 17	146 20	+10 15	Č.
	5207		568	0.519	276 48	194 4	144 7	+12 25	D
	5208	1	568	0.505	281 54	199 31	149 34	+11 55	b.
	5209	i	568	0.487	279 11	198 45	148 48	+1251	c.
	5210	i	568	0.491	282 13	206 1	156 4	+ 9 27	d.
	5211	•	568	0.413	278 28	195 53	145 56	+ 9 18	E
	5212	İ	568	0.426	279 12	205 6	155 9	+10 16	E
	5213	4	568	0.438	283 43	208 48	158 51	+11 44	F
	5214	1	568	0.457	281 37	207 20	157 23	+11 34	ì
	5215	į	568	0.501	277 48	202 50	152 53	+11 42	e.
	5216	1	568	0.412	283 30	210 25	160 28	+11 44	∃Ġ
	5217		569	0.644	236 57	220 9	170 12	-13 51 $-10 20$	i G
	5218	į	569	0.642	232 18	216 14	166 17	-12 18	1
	5219	1	569	0.636	234 11	215 48	165 51 166 39	•-12 4	g
	5220	1	569	0.631	231 27	216 36		-16 3	g
	5221	i	570	0.384	222 14	206 56	156 59 151 32	- 15 21	h
	5222		570	0.371	223 50	201 29	150 13	-15 39	h
	5223		570	0.361	224 5 328 9	200 10 179 33	129 36	+15 36	S
	5224		571	0.274	328 9 331 46	182 4	132 7	: +17 38	8
	5225		571	0.281	336 3	184 56	134 59	+17 59	8
	5226		571 571	0.282	332 31	186 35	136 38	+16 35	1
	5227		571	0.293	334 35	180 0	130 3	+15 7	t
	5228 5229		571	0.301	345 45	185 22	135 25	+17 3	
	5230		571	0.317	346 58	185 27	135 30	+16 45	
	523		541	0.328	349 34	184 41	134 44	+16.58	
	523		572	0.584	104 30	150 42	100 55	-17 25	
	523		572	0.579	103 54	152 24	102 27	-17 30	1 -
	523		572	0.632	101 58	147 15	97 18	-18 34	- 1
	523		572	0.628	99 58	145 17	95 20	-19 44	
	523			0.966	282 56	258 21	208 8	+20 25	. }
ì	523		566	0.968	280 26			+22 1	
	523		568	0.525	274 0			+ 9 48	
1	523		568	0.520	277 38			+10 17	
1	524		568		276 9			+12 16	4
	524	1	568		282 48			,	4
	524	2	568		278 44	1 72			-
	524		568		282 39				
	524		568	,	279 49				- 1
1	524	5	568	0.429	278 39	205 2	1 100 14	, , , , ,	

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot
1864.					. ,	,	6 /	1	
June 7.	5246	157.540	568	0.441	284 44	208 57	158 44	+11 50	F.
	5247		568	0.460	281 40	207 39	157 26	+11 42	F1.
	5248	1	568	0.202	277 36	203 56	153 43	+11 44	e.
	5249	1	568	0.417	283 49	210 42	160 29	+11 45	f.
	5250 5251	1	569 569	0.650 0.645	237 58 232 33	220 48 216 36	170 35	-13 56	G.
1	5252	1	569	0.640	234 55	216 52	166 23 166 39	-10 14 $-12 23$	1
1	5252		569	0.633	231 9	217 1	166 48	-12 23 -11 54	g.
1	5254	i	570	0.385	222 33	206 22	156 9	-16 8	g¹. H.
1	5255		570	0.373	224 41	201 54	151 41	-15 17	h.
1	5256	I ;	570	0.362	223 6	200 48	150 35	-15 44	h1.
į	5257		571	0.275	328 28	180 9	129 56	+15 41	S.
	5258	;	571	0.282	331 25	182 40	132 27	+17 33	s.
1	5259		571	0.281	337 56	184 20	134 7	+18 10	s¹.
1	5260	;	571	0.294	331 48	186 26	136 13	+16 36	T.
1	5261	1	571	0.299	333 13	180 55	130 42	+14 59	t.
	5262	: 1	571	0.306	344 13	185 35	135 18	+17 5	t1.
,	5263	1 1	571	0.318	345 15	186 8	135 55	+16 49	t".
1	5264	!	571	0.330	349 18	185 4	134 51	+17 2	u.
1	5265 5266	I	572 572	0.580	105 43	150 19 152 46	100 6	-17 33	W.
	5267		572	0·575 0·627	103 17 102 47	152 46 147 24	102 33 97 11	-17 32	w. V.
	5265		572	0.622	99 7	146 1	95 48	-18 39 -19 41	
8.	5269	158.548	568	0.691	268 4	221 18	156 47	-1941 +1044	y. A.
0.	5270	100 0 10	568	0.683	269 38	212 48	148 17	+ 9 18	В.
	5271	, .	568	0.675	272 49	214 15	149 44	+10 18	č.
1	5272	. !	568	0.688	271 43	214 6	149 35	+10 46	Ď.
	5273	· .	568	0.674	273 9	218 48	154 17	+11 47	E.
	5274	i	568	0.688	274 48	211 39	147 8	+11 4	F.
- 1	5275	1	568	0.672	275 26	218 40	154 9	+12 32	a.
1	5276		568	0.610	275 54	223 59	159 28	+10 27	b .
	5277	i	568	0.625	277 35	224 47	160 16	+12 57	c.
ì	5278		568	0.636	277 35	220 2	155 31	+1234	d.
1	5279		568	0.651	277 57	212 59	148 28	+11 34	e.
1	5280		568	0.605	278 11	213 35	149 4	+10 50	f.
	5281		569	0.812	237 21	232 26 233 9	167 55	-13 25	G.
1	5282		$\frac{569}{569}$	0.810	237 34 236 9	233 9 234 47	168 38 170 16	-11 45 $-12 17$	G,
	5283 5284	1	569 569	0.807	235 57	233 50	169 19	-12 17 $-12 59$	g_{i}
1	5285		570	0.550	232 10	217 10	152 39	-16 17	H.
ì	5286		570	0.544	231 36	220 16	155 45	-15 49	h.
	5287	ŧ	571	0.415	297 4	198 30	133 59	+17 55	Μ.
	5288		571	0.406	298 50	194 27	129 56	+16 36	N.
1	5289		571	0.399	300 44	198 50	134 19	+18 29	0.
1	5290	1	571	0.378	302 6	199 44	135 13	+14 39	\mathbf{m}_{ullet}
1	5291	1	571	0.388	304 28	200 43	136 12	+15 42	n.
1	5292		571	0.361	307 42	199 37	135 6	+16 21	0.
	5293	,	571	0.355	306 51	199 47	135 16	+17 51	Р.
-	5294		571	0.341	308 6	195 9	130 38	+17 45	p.
	5295	1	572	0.415	116 35	165 43 166 45	101 12 102 14	-17 35 $-17 18$	Q.
	5296	,	572	0.417	117 53 109 47	160 49	96 18	-17 18 $-19 54$	Q¹.
	5297	1	572 572	0·488 0·483	109 47	162 21	97 50	-19 54 $-18 42$	\mathbf{q} .
į.	5298 5299	158-610	568	0.688	268 5	221 39	156 16	+10 40	À.
1	5300	199.010	568	0.679	269 32	213 48	148 25	+ 9 23	В.
	0000		200		272 24				

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.					° . ;	225 17	149 54	+10 50	D.
June 8.	5302	158-610	568	0.685	272 44	225 17 219 35	154 12	+11 49	E.
1	5303	l	568	0.672	273 12 274 40	219 33	147 26	+11 8	F.
	5304	1	568	0.684 0.668	274 40	220 22	154 59	+12 35	a.
!	5305		568 568	0.605	276 32	224 23	159 0	+10 29	ъ.
1	5306		568	0.622	276 47	226 20	160 57	+12 52	c.
	5307 5308	-	568	0.631	277 52	220 40	155 17	+1231	d.
	5309	1	568	0.645	277 12	213 34	148 11	+11 37	e.
1	5310		568	0.601	278 24	214 53	149 30	+10 54	f.
	5311	•	569	0.807	237 0	233 9	167 46	-13 26	G. G ¹ .
	5312		569	0.805	237 37	233 34	168 11	-11 40 $-12 17$	
	5313	1	569	0.806	236 56	236 18	170 55 169 9	-13 4	gi.
	5314		569	0.800	235 39	234 32 217 56	152 33	-16 16	Ĥ.
	5315		570	0.545	232 48	217 56 221 4	155 41	-15 41	h.
,	5316		570	0.541	231 9 298 41	198 29	133 6	+17 50	M.
i	5317	i	571	0.411	298 41	194 51	129 28	+16 31	N.
	5318	İ	571	0·402 0·387	300 56	199 48	134 25	+18 22	0.
	5319	1	571 571	0.375	301 25	201 19	135 56	+14 33	m.
	5320 5321	ĺ	571	0.383	304 7	202 11	136 48	+15 44	n.
	5322	1	571	0.356	307 13	200 36	135 13	+16 20	0.
	5323		571	0.350	306 42	200 56	135 33	+17 46	Р.
	5324		571	0.346	308 22	195 45	130 22	+17 46	p.
	5325	1	572	0.411	116 49	166 50	101 27	-17 42 $-17 13$	Q_i
	5326	İ	572	0.415	118 22	167 49	102 26	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	q.
	5327	i	572	0.483	109 58	161 33	96 10	-18 37	qi.
	5328		572	0.479	108 52	163 26 251 46	159 41	+11 33	M.
10.	5329	160.492	568	0.942	266 18 267 14	246 26	154 21	+12 57	N.
	5330	1	568	0.930	267 14 267 51	252 42	160 37	+12 40	0.
	5331	i	568	0.927	269 43	250 14	158 9	+10 28	P.
	5332		568 568	0.925	268 0	250 45	158 40	+1140	ш.
	5333 5334	į	568	0.901	268 25	248 9	156 4	+12.53	n.
	5335	į	568	0.909	269 16	252 39	160 34	+12 23	0.
	5336	1	568	0.898	270 6	242 28	150 23	+11 5	P.
	5337	i	569	0.971	243 42	261 4	168 59	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	G.
	5338		571	0.680	278 6	224 34	132 29	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Ği.
	5339	1	571	0.665	282 2	221 23	129 18 133 54	+14 47	g.
	5340	1	. 571	0.614	286 12	225 59 226 36	134 31	+18 17	g1.
	5341	1	571	0.592	287 39	226 3 6	102 25	-17 11	Y.
	5342		572	0.294	184 32 185 44	193 37	101 32	-18 6	Yº.
	5343	:	572	0.299	186 50	189 32	97 27	-18 54	y¹
	5344	1	572 572	0.299	170 38	190 33	98 28	-19 12	y".
	5345	i	572	0.307	172 53	188 55	96 50	-18 52	z.
	5346 5347		573	0.946	58 54	115 33	23 28	+16 43	W.
	5348	160-503		0.945	266 51	252 6	159 51	+11 36	M.
	5349	1 30 000	568	0.933	267 42	246 26	154 11	+12 50	Z.
	5350		568	0.929	267 17	253 4	160 49	+12 46	O. P.
	5351		568	0.926	269 41	251 9	158 54	+10 27	m.
	5352		568	0.908	268 48	250 48	158 33	+11 42	n.
	5353		568	0.905	268 17	248 55	156 40	+12 50 +12 18	0.
	5354		568	0.911	269 4	252 34	160 19 150 31	+12 10	р.
	5355		568	0.902	270 14	242 46 260 20	168 5	-13 11	X.
1	5356		569	0.975	243 16	224.22	132 40	+16 40	G.
i .	5357		571	0.683	278 51	224 00	102 40	1	

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spo
				ļ			1		
1864.		100					i .		
une 10.	5358	160.503	571	0.670	282 í	221 29	129 14	+15 7	G ¹
	5359		571	0.617	286 26	226 9	133 54	+14 48	g.
	5360	i	571	0.595	287 4	227 5	134 50	+18 12	g1
	5361		572	0.297	184 10	195 14	102 59	-17 21	g¹. Y.
	5362		572	0.303	185 40	193 44	101 29	-18 9	Yo.
	5363	i	572	0.311	186 3	189 21	97 6	-18 55	
	5364	;	572	0.302	170 11	191 4	98 49	-19 15	y1.
	5365	1	572	0.308	172 16	188 38	96 23		y".
	5366	i i	573	0.944	58 40	115 27		-18 50	Z.
11.	5367	161-468	568	0.984	269 9			+16 48	W.
	5368		568	0.992	270 1		159 40	+11 56	A.
	5369		568	0.990	270 50	1 !	160 47	+12 19	В.
	5370	1	568	0.965		262 37	156 41	+10 7	a.
	5371		572		1	258 22	152 26	+11 21	b.
	5372			0.402	219 47	207 33	101 37	-17 8	C.
	5373		572	0.408	220 10	204 43	98 47	-17 33	c.
	5374	1	573	0.884	56 44	131 44	25 48	+16 16	D.
- 1	5375	4	573	0.880	57 37	129 22	23 26	+15 20	E.
	5376	i	573	0.875	57 47	126 2	20 6	+16 52	d.
1		1.00	573	0.865	58 24	127 45	21 49	+14 40	e.
1	5377	161-491	568	988	269 1	265 44	159 29	+12 5	A.
	5378		568	0.993	270 32	265 53	159 38	+1217	В.
i	5379	. :	568	0.991	271 6	262 40	156 25	+10 9	a.
3	5380	1 1	572	0.406	219 20	208 13	101 58	-17 25	č.
- 1	5381		572	0.413	220 30	205 19	99 4	-17 40	
1	5382		573	0.880	56 29	131 23	25 8	$+16\ 12$	c. D·
1	5383		573	0.876	57 52	130 4		+16 12 +15 31	
	5384		573	0.871	56 17	126 21			E.
1	5385	1 .	573	0.857	58 16	127 52	20 6	+17 0	d.
13.	5386	163-644	572	0.781	237 25		21 37	+14 46	e.
	5387	1	572	0.786	238 18		98 49	-18 28	A.
	5388	1	573			236 28	99 41	-1734	a.
	5389			0.472	45 38	163 31	26 44	+149	В.
1	5390	*	573	0.486	46 23	160 14	23 27	+16 29	c.
-	5391		573	0.493	46 28	162 59	26 12	+17 19	D.
1			573	0.502	49 24	158 4	21 17	+17 50	b.
i	5392		573	0.517	50 25	157 37	20 50	+14 37	c.
!	5393		573	0.510	48 29	159 41	22 54	+15 16	d.
	5394	i	573	0.534	51 15	156 26	19 39	+16 11	Ē.
1	5395		573	0.541	52 38	156 13	19 26	+18 40	e.
	5396		574	0.555	331 37	193 18	56 31	+12 14	Ĕ.
i	5397		574	0.556	337 17	192 9	55 22	+12 21	G.
	5398	:	574	0.231	345 33	190 20	53 33	+12 40	н.
ļ	5399	4	574	0.237	346 47	191 54	55 7	+12 46	f.
	5400	1	574	0.242	348 40	188 51	52 4	+13 19	
	5401	i	574	0.225	355 12	189 40			g.
	5402		574	0.240	1 21				h.
1	5403	i	574			187 28	50 41	+13 14	Κ.
14.	5404	164-589		0.245	359 14	186 48	50 1	+14 25	k.
	5405	101 109		0.892	241 18	249 32	99 20	-17 19	М.
j	5406			0.895	242 10	249 23	99 11	-18 46	m.
		:		0.308	25 17	175 39	25 27	+14 18	Α.
1	5407			0.353	27 29	170 29	20 17	+17 31	в.
1	5408	1		0.377	33 3	174 27	24 15	+16 57	C.
1	5409			0.392	36 56	174 11	23 59	+15 19	a.
	5410	1	573	0.402	38 13	171 50	21 38	+15 59	b.
- 1	5411	3	574	0.341	295 19	205 45	55 33	+12 7	Ď.
	5412	-		0.333	296 25	202 32	52 20	+14 28	d.
	5413								

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1024					202 25	204 53	54 41	+14 19	e.
1864. June 14.	5414	164-589	574	0.299	301 37	265 36	99 29	-17 14	х.
15.	5415	165.711	572	0.965	244 17 243 25	264 24	98 17	-18 55	х.
10.	5416		572	0.970	331 49	190 7	24 0	+17 35	A.
	5417		573	0.296	337 50	192 5	25 58	+16 41	B. C.
1	5418	1	573	0.298	340 35	188 12	22 5	+16 19	D.
	5419		573	0.283 0.523	279 12	220 44	54 37	$+12 \ 31$ $+14 \ 5$	d.
İ	5420		574 574	0.517	280 2	222 26	56 19	$+14 5 \\ +13 28$	E.
	5421		574	0.504	282 15	217 28	51 21	+12 34	e.
1	5422	i	574	0.502	283 34	218 52	52 45 52 48	+14 17	F.
	5423		574	0.465	286 47	218 55		+14 0	f.
	5424		574	0.468	285 57	219 16	52 9 308 37	+14 29	М.
	5425		575	0.965	65 0	114 44	307 11	+12 10	m.
	5426 5427		575	0.966	66 53	113 17	302 7	+12 0	m¹.
	5428		575	0.988	64 49		25 50	+1643	P.
16.	5429	166-501	573	0.366	308 12	203 9	22 44	+1515	p.
10.	5430		573	0.371	309 33 311 58	201 0	23 41	+17 33	p¹.
•	5431	1	573	0.382	277 58	232 51	55 32	+13 14	A. B.
	5432	1	574	0.670	278 20	228 50	51 31	$+14 5 \\ +14 17$	C.
	5433	!	574	0.662	278 21	232 17	54 58	$+14 17 \\ +13 57$	a.
	5434	1	574 574	0.638	279 21	233 22	56 3	+13 20	b.
	5435		574	0.611	282 19	233 12	55 53	+12 41	e.
	5436		574	0.583	283 9	229 34	52 15 307 45	+14 58	M.
	5437	1	575	0.912	67 24	125 4	307 45	+13 40	M°.
	5438	1	575	0.917	66 45	123 29	308 53	+12 3	m.
	5440		575	0.918	66 0	126 12	301 16	+12 24	n.
	5441		575	0.954	65 54	118 35	300 39	+12 19	0.
	5442	1	575	0.959	65 6 308 57	203 46	25 58	+16 44	Р.
	5443	166.534	573	0.370	309 27	199 55	22 7	+15 19	p.
	5444	1	573	0.374	310 44	200 58	23 10	$+17 \ 37 \\ +13 \ 11$	\mathbf{p}^{1} . A.
!	5445	1	573	0.385	277 19	232 57	55 9	, , , , , , ,	В.
	5446		574 574	0.666	279 32	228 49	51 1	1	4
	5447		574	0.630	278 25	232 31	54 43	+14 2	
	5448		574	0.641	279 42	234 9	56 21 55 32	00	
1	5449		574	0.615	282 39	233 20	52 22	1	c.
	5450 5451		574	0.588	282 50	230 10	007 15	+14 50	
	545		575	0.910	67 44	125 3 123 53	1 000	$+13^{41}$	
1	545		575	0.913	67 12		1 000 15	+12 1	
1	545		575	0.912	66 16	1 2,00	301 58	3 +12 26	
	545		575	0.950			300 1		
	545		575	0.955	207 40		24 3		
1			80 573 573	1	222 46	1	22 25	- :::	
1 3	545		573	1 - 0 - 1		218 1		. 1 . 1 . 9	- 1
	545		573		293 20	213 5		* 1	
	546		578		004 16	213 1	20 1	- 1 : 6 4	- 1
4	546		573		295 10		0 20 0		5 D.
	546 546		574	1 - 0-1	5 274 3		1 10 2	5 + 14 1	8 E.
1	546		57	1 0.84			~	7 +13 2	
	546		57			1 -40 0	0	9 + 144	1 d.
	540		57			*		7 + 14	9 e.
1	54	- 1	57				8 53 3	1 +14 9	_
1	54		57	4 0.79 5 0.79		1		6 +13 2	00 1 0

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.	 			ļ	ļ	 		-	
June 17.	5470	167.580	575	0.795	64 46	139 42	307 5	+14 56	Gº.
	5471		575	0.814	63 59	140 55	308 18	+13 51	
	5472		575	0.845	62 37	134 43	302 6	+13 59	g1.
10	5473	200 155	575	0.862	62 15	133 45	301 8	+12 21	g³.
18.	5474	168-477	573	0.746	278 0	230 38	25 17	+17 33	A.
	5475 5476		573	0.742	278 28	228 10	22 49	+15 20	a.
	5477		574 574	0.934	273 37 274 50	260 5	54 44	+13 1	M.
	5478		574	0.886	274 30 275 31	256 2	50 41	+13 24	M'
	5479		574	0.890	275 44	256 55 260 37	51 34 55 16	+13 51	m.
	5480	1	574	0.892	276 48	258 11	52 50	+14 29 +13 45	n.
	5481		575	0.633	62 39	148 50	303 29	+13 45 +12 36	0. P.
	5482	1	575	0.648	62 17	147 58	302 37	+14 38	P0.
	5483		575	0.650	61 33	155 0	309 39	+14 3	p.
	5484	1	575	0.710	60 12	152 49	307 28	+12 12	p ¹ .
	5485		575	0.666	60 28	146 44	301 23	+12 39	Q.
	5486 5487	1 1	575 575	0.689	61 12	146 30	300 59	+13 20	q.
20.	5488	170-499	575 575	0·724 0·310	63 30 38 35	146 32	301 11	+14 34	q1.0
~0.	5489	170 499	575	0.322	39 20	183 53 182 2	309 51	+11 40	M.
	5490	,	575	0.324	39 17	182 2	308 0 306 9	+12 12 + 12 52	N.
	5491	'	575	0.348	40 20	179 8	305 6	$+1252 \\ +1227$	0.
	5492	: 1	575	0.371	40 44	179 11	305 9	+13 14	m.
	5493	·	575	0.390	42 33	178 40	304 38	+14 5	n.
	5494	į	575	0.384	41 26	177 11	303 9	+13 6	P.
	5495	:	575	0.394	43 42	176 4	302 2	+14 51	р.
21.	5496	171.467	575	0.210	355 38	188 13	300 28	+12 43	M.
	5497	:	575	0.247	356 51	195 0	307 15	+12 38	Mº.
i	5498		575	0.252	1 6	194 22	306 37	+13 21	N.
1	5499 5500	1 1	575 575	0.281	3 27	196 1	308 16	+13 4	a.
-	5501	171.511	575	0·279 0·208	6 9 355 26	190 40	302 55	+14 27	b.
!	5502	171 311	575	0.244	355 26 356 9	188 54 195 17	300 31 306 54	+12 38 +12 44	М.
,	5503	1	575	0.248	0 52	194 53	306 30	+12 44 +13 15	Mº. N.
	5504	1	575	0.276	3 18	197 4	308 41	+13 10	
	5505	1	575	0.271	5 37	191 32	303 9	+14 34	a. b.
23.	5506	173-607	575	0.354	276 38	216 4	297 57	+ 9 58	Α.
	5507	1	575	0.362	277 54	218 0	299 53	+88	В.
	5508	1	575	0.384	281 28	217 22	299 15	+ 7 37	C.
	5509	1	575	0.385	280 20	224 23	306 16	+ 6 41	a.
	5510 5511	!	575 575	0.402	285 35	225 29	307 22	+10 29	ь.
1	5512	1 :	575	0.474	286 17 288 48	227 41 226 36	309 34	+11 8	c.
	5513	1 1	575	0.455	288 48 284 16		308 29 310 36	+12 50 + 12 24	D.
	5514	1 '	575	0.493	289 36	228 43 227 24	310 36 309 17	$+12 24 \\ +12 17$	d.
24.	5515	174-539	575	0.515	278 12	233 1	301 41	+12 17	d¹. M.
1	5516		575	0.537	289 3	230 24	299 4	+6.26	N.
1	5517	i	575	0.526	286 39	237 39	306 19	+ 6 40	Ö.
	5518		575	0.588	282 15	239 43	308 23	+ 8 45	m.
	5519		575	0.602	279 38	242 9	310 49	+11 30	n.
j	5520		575	0.594	283 28	238 45	307 25	+12 25	0.
	5521		575	0.641	280 44	234 33	303 13	+ 9 44	\mathbf{m}^0 .
	5522		575	0.636	284 9	238 58	307 38	+12 37	n°.
	5523 5524	174.540	575	0.658	286 56	238 26	307 6	+11 49	o^0 .
	5525	174.549	575	0.520	277 54	233 40	302 12	+11 4	М.
1	0020	į	575	0.539	288 43	230 32	299 4	+ 6 27	N.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.				0.151	51° 23	201 15	57 49	+ 8 57	b.
July 9.	5638	189.492	579	0.171	54 16	199 56	56 30	+ 8 19	c.
	5639		579	0·194 0·221	56 34	198 48	55 22	+10 13	c.
	5640		579 581	0.398	77 42	191 39	48 13	+ 6 32	D.
	5641 5642	1	581	0.405	77 0	190 59	47 33	+ 6 13	E.
	5643	,	581	0.464	78 59	188 42	45 16	+ 5 1	F.
	5644		581	0.481	78 0	188 23	44 57	+ 6 39	d.
	5645		581	0.495	76 5	185 7	41 41	+ 7 20	e.
	5646	-	581	0.502	76 42	185 58	42 32	+ 8 33	f.
	5647		582	0.971	73 21	138 54	355 28	+ 9 34	G.
	5648		582	0.976	74 41	132 10	348 44	+10 2	g. H.
	5649	1	582	0.988	75 8	135 48	352 22 346 37	+ 8 20 + 8 39	h.
	5650		582	0.992	76 38	130 3	346 37 95 29	+839 -164	A.
	5651	189-518	578	0.520	233 30	239 17 203 34	59 46	+ 9 29	В.
	5652	1	579	0.152	50 7 51 47	203 34	58 0	+ 8 53	b.
	5653		579	0·169 0·190	54 27	200 10	56 22	+ 8 16	C.
	5654		579	0.217	56 11	198 59	55 11	+10 11	c.
	5655 5656		579 581	0.395	77 16	191 44	47 56	+ 6 28	D.
	5657		581	0.402	77 58	. 191 22	47 34	+ 6 18	E.
	5658		581	0.461	78 22	188 49	45 1	+ 5 9	F.
	5659		581	0.479	78 26	188 17	45 29	+ 6 44	d.
	5660		581	0.492	76 7	185 31	41 43	+ 7 29	е.
	5661	1	581	0.499	76 20	186 11	42 23	+ 8 28	f.
	5662	1	582	0.966	73 34	139 2	355 14	+ 9 37	G.
	5663		582	0.975	74 2	132 24	349 36	+ 9 54	g.
	5664		582	0.984	74 34	136 0	353 12	+ 8 22	H.
'	5665		582	0.989	75 31	130 14	346 26 94 31	+843 -1532	h. M.
11		191.499	578	0.830	254 39	266 25	94 31 57 46	1	A.
	5667	·	579	0.299	301 46	229 40	56 8	+ 8 39	В.
	5668	1	579	0.304	302 31	228 2	. 59 41	+10 47	c.
	5669		579	0.317	305 20 306 55	229 57	58 3	+ 9 35	a.
1	5670		579	0.311	304 6	229 28	57 34	+10 7	b.
Ī	5671	,	579	0.328	308 42	229 16	57 22	+ 8 58	c.
	5672 5673		579 581	0.194	300 8	213 29	43 35	+ 5 19	D.
1	5674	3.	581	0.190	307 10	219 26	47 32	+ 7 58	Ε.
	5675		581	0.146	326 39	218 26	46 32	+641	F.
	5676		. 581	0.123	331 4	215 20	43 26	+ 6 1	d.
	5677		581	0.106	354 29	214 49	42 55	+751	e.
	5678	1	581	0.090	2 2	217 26	45 32	+ 5 48	f.
	5679	1	582	0.799	75 13	164 44	352 50	+ 9 50	P.
1	5680	1	582	0.821	76 51	163 0	351 6 349 27	+10 20 + 8 55	Q. R.
	5681		582	0.852	77 29	161 21	1 0-0	1	}
	5682	1	582	0.855	76 58	159 29	347 35 355 19	$\begin{array}{c} + 8 & 9 \\ + 9 & 16 \end{array}$	q.
	5683		582	0.869	77 47 79 18	167 13 165 26	353 32	+ 9 57	r.
	5684	107:73	582	0.876	79 18 253 26	267 8	95 0	-15 28	M.
	5685 5686	191.516	578 579	0.832	300 54	229 49	57 41	+ 8 43	A.
	5687	1	579	0.302	301 28	228 56	56 48	+ 8 41	В.
	5688	i	579	0.320	305 24	231 52	59 44	+10 49	C.
	5689		579	0.316	306 46	230 45	58 37	+ 9 40	a.
	5690	1	579	0.330	304 26	229 25	57 17	+ 9 59	b.
1	5691		579	0.333	308 14	229 28	57 20	+ 8 47	c.
ĺ	5692	1	581	0.197	300 47	215 20	43 12	+ 5 22	D.
1	5693	1	581	0.193	307 10	219 40	47 32	+ 7 50	E.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Tim of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue	Contra	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node			Spo
1864.			1		-				
July 11		191.516	581	0.148	331 38	219 5	46 57	+ 6 39	1 12
	5695 5696		581	0.126	335 59	215 22	43 14	+ 5 54	1
	5697	!	581	0.111	356 32	215 7	42 59	+ 7 52	d.
	5698		581	0.096	2 46	217 38	45 30	+ 5 44	e. f.
	5699	:	582 582	0.796	75 31	164 14	352 6	+ 9 52	P.
	5700	1	582	0.816	76 51	163 52	351 44	+10 7	Q.
	5701		582	0.853	77 53	161 49	349 41	+ 8 50	R.
	5702		582	0.865	76 21	159 58	347 50	+88	p.
	5703		582	0.873	76 12 79 2	167 32	355 24	+ 9 11	q.
13	5704	193.627	579	0.671	79 2 283 12	165 22	353 14	+10 3	r.
	5705	4	579	0.689	285 38	259 9 257 29	57 3	+86	M.
	5706	1 1	579	0 698	286 28	1 - 2	55 23	+ 9 12	m,
	5707	1	581	0.622	278 19	260 40 248 32	58 34	+10 15	N.
	5708		581	0.617	277 24	249 22	46 26 47 16	+ 6 42	A.
	5709	;	581	0.493	281 1	249 49	47 16	$+756 \\ +64$	a.
	5710	1 :	582	0.393	61 48	196 33	354 28		aº.
	5711	1	582	0.427	63 27	197 57	355 52	$+922 \\ +88$	В.
	5712 5713	1 1	582	0.439	65 50	195 44	353 39	+ 8 10	C.
	5714		582	0.474	62 8	188 57	346 52	+ 7 7	E.
	5715		58⊉ 582	0.502	69 34	189 26	347 21	+11 33	b.
	5716		582	0.491	67 5	187 24	345 19	+10 6	c.
	5717	1	582	0.546	68 58	190 5	348 0	+ 8 28	d.
14.		194.521	579	0.552 0.825	71 21	186 57	344 52	+ 8 22	e.
	5719	-51-041	579	0.817	285 59 285 38	270 29	55 43	+ 8 55	A.
	5720	. i	579	0.803	285 38 287 30	272 30 271 57	57 44	+934	В.
	5721		581	0.784	281 4		57 11	+913	C.
	5722		581	0.709	280 57	262 24 260 30	47 38	+63	a.
	5723	· ;	581	0.637	280 6	261 58	45 44 47 12	+ 5 9	b.
	5724		382	0.223	37 32	210 58	356 12	$+715 \\ +1147$	c.
i	5725		582	0.256	39 15	210 10	355 24	+10 51	D. E.
į	5726		582	0.241	44 13	207 14	352 28	+10 29	F.
i	5727	1	582	0.273	47 35	208 15	353 29	+ 8 35	d.
į	5728		582	0.562	49 21		353 56	+ 8 53	٠
1	5729 5730			0.284	51 38 :	207 7	352 21 *	+ 7 42	f.
	5731	;	_	0.311	58 7	202 21	347 35	+ 9 27	Ġ.
1	5732	i	-	0·357 0·389	58 56	202 18	347 32	+ 9 35	g.
!	5733	1	-	0.394	61 47	199 44	344 58	+10 8	H.
-	5734			0.404	63 23 1 65 13	198 56 197 41	344 10	+10 29	h.
15.	5735	195-506		0.932	281 46	197 41 283 52	342 55	+11 16	n.
-	5736			0.945	283 24	284 54	55 8 56 10	$+820 \\ +958$	S.
İ	5737		579	956	284 32	285 43	56 59	, -	s.
1	5738			0.899	278 22	274 18	45 34	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	s¹.
-	5739			0.771	277 56	276 8	47 24	+ 5 30	A.
	5740	1			332 47	223 59	355 15	+10 22	a. B.
1	5741 5742	i			337 11	224 56	356 12	+10 2	č.
	5743	1			345 20	220 27	351 43	+11 20	b.
	5744			174	351 34	220 51	352 7	+ 9 46	c.
-	5745		- 1	209	14 22	216 11	347 27	+ 7 9	Ď.
1	5746			238	18 11 25 28	215 37 213 1	346 53	+ 8 41	E.
1	5747			242	25 28 27 16	213 1 210 58	344 17	+ 9 40	F.
- 1	5748		'	247	32 55	213 44	342 14	+ 9 54	d.
	5749			251	35 48	213 37	345 0 344 53	+10 9 + 848	e
	- 1	- 1		- 1		01	UTT (10)	+ 8 48	f.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.			•		to	299 35	56° 46	+ 8 18	Α.
July 16.	5750	196.499	579	0.982	285 49		55 56	+ 8 5	а.
1	5751	1	579	0-994	286 55 281 5	298 45 289 9	46 20	+ 6 56	M.
	5752		581	0.970		237 35	354 46	+10 30	В.
1	5753		582	0.311		239 9	356 20	+11 52	c.
1	5754		582	0.348	299 37 304 13	238 3	355 14	+ 9 32	D.
	5755	1	582	0.375	305 21	235 9	352 20	+ 9 15	b.
	5756	1	582	0.392	308 7	234 28	351 39	+ 9 1	c.
	5757		582	0·407 0·286	311 38	227 27	344 38	+ 8 40	s.
	5758		583	0.280	317 36	229 21	346 32	+ 9 35	o.
	5759	i	583	0.269	324 21	228 0	345 11	+85	Р.
	5760	i	583 583	0.222	314 34	224 12	341 23	+ 9 41	6.
	5761		583	0.222	325 25	224 59	342 10	+ 9 13	U.
	5762	1	583	0.231	328 42	223 53	341 4	+10.55	р.
	5763 =764	1	583	0.219	329 22	227 36	344 47	+ 8 20	q.
19.	5764 5765	199.623	582	0.807	287 15	276 31	349 43	+ 8 57	A.
19.	5766	199 020	582	0.841	288 47	279 40	352 32	+ 9 55	В.
	5767	1	582	0.852	288 57	280 30	353 22	+958	a.
	5768		582	0.866	289 14	283 59	356 51	$+10 \ 31$	b.
	5769	1	583	0.705	288 9	269 51	342 43	+11 11	C.
	5770		583	0.724	289 26	272 19	345 11	+ 8 45	D.
	5771		583	0.754	290 43	272 2	344 4	+ 9 52	E.
	5772		583	0.769	288 42	272 20	345 12	+855	C.
	5773		583	0.771	290 19	268 15	341 7	+10.46	d.
20.	5774	200.503	582	0.902	289 11	293 29	353 53	+ 9 33	s.
,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	5775		582	0.946	290 53	295 3	355 27	+ 8 2	ð.
	5776		582	0.956	291 43	295 27	356 21	+10 13	s1.
	5777	ł	583	0.894	288 55	283 46	344 10	+11 52	A.
	5778		583	0.887	290 42	282 50	343 14	+ 9 55	a.
	5779	1	583	0.881	290 42	283 49	344 13	+10 9	
21.	5780	201.524	583	0.991	287 54	293 33	345 27	+82	Α.
	5781	ì	583	0.985	289 10	298 42	344 36 252 27	+10 54	а. В.
	5782	i	585	0.394	130 0	206 33	252 27	-11 27 $-19 45$	c.
	5783		584	0.922	111 16	,	256 45	-1945 -1146	A.
23.	5784 •	203.603	581	0.411	236 18	240 20	252 2	-1140 -927	a.
	5785	1	585	0.387	229 50	188 5	204 30	-20 43	B.
	5786	0-0	584	0.694	126 20	100 0	201 00	-20 10	
25.	5787	205.606		ot visible.	201 01	247 28	222 50	+11 9	A.
26.	5788	206-497	585a	0.372	301 21 227 14	237 39	213 1	-17 4	В.
	5789	1 .	584a 584a	0.384	198 37	235 27	210 59	-19 39	C.
	5790		584a	0.389	191 46	233 19	208 41	-18 52	b.
	5791	206-591	5854	0.376	301 52	248 42	222 44	+11 13	A.
	5792	200.591	5847	0.379	227 38	239 24	213 26	-17 10	В.
	5793		584a	0.379	197 50	237 6	211 8	-19 36	C.
	5794	1	584a	0.382	191 2	234 40	208 42	-18 57	b.
27.	5795 5796	207.641	585a	0.591	293 33	263 16	222 24	+11 37	a.
~1.	5797	70,011	585a	0.572	294 4	265 30	224 38	+10 8	b.
	5798	1	585a	0.554	295 28	262 6	221 14	+11 5	c.
	5799	1	584a	0.423	225 47	251 39	210 47	-17 56	aº.
	5800	1	584a	0.454	227 16	252 33	211 41	-17 9	bº.
	5801	1	5844	0.467	229 21	254 43	213 51	-19 25	co.
	5802	207-651	585a	0.594	293 46	263 3	222 3	+11 46	a.
	5803		585a	0.576	294 29	265 23	224 23	+10 7	b.
,	5804	i	585a	0.560	295 7	262 41	221 41	+11 12	C.
	5805		. 584a	0-427	225 8	251 10	210 10	-18 0	aº.

TABLE III. (continued).

Da	ite.	No.	Mean Ti of Sun picture	Group in	Comm	Angle of Position.			Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spe
180 July		5806	207.65	1 504	0.455			-		-
Jusy	21.	5807	207.03		0.459	227 42	252 36	211 30	-17 6	bo.
	29.	5808	209.50	584a 9 585a	0.470	229 32	254 33	213 33	-19 33	
		5809	203 00	584a	0.888	291 30	291 13	223 51	+11 9	A.
Aug.	. 1.	5810	212.50		0.711	250 28	279 0	211 38	-18 32	В.
		5811	2.200.	586	0·376 0·361	171 21	236 53	127 1	-19 34	A.
		5812	1	586	0.347	179 0	231 33	121 41	-15 35	В.
		5813	ŧ	586	0.321	182 59 185 18	232 0	122 8	-17 33	a.
•		5814		587	0.884		229 32	119 40	-14 9	b.
		5815	i	587	0.886	85 57 86 57	167 34	57 42	+ 8 34	c.
		5816	i	587	0.912	86 57 92 55	168 36	58 34	+ 7 46	D.
		5817	1	587	0.929	98 36	165 56	56 4	+ 3 30	E.
	-	5818	1	587	0.943	94 56	167 0	57 8	+ 2 57	c.
	2.	5819	213.678		0.394	230 38	169 31 252 2	59 39	+ 0 17	d.
	į	5820	1	586	0.370	228 11		125 32	-1550	a.
	1	5821	1	586	0.357	224 13	251 15 249 19	124 45	-18 4	b.
	- 1	5822	1	587	0.741	88 8		122 49	-1943	c.
		5823	1	587	0.792	86 9		57 19	+ 6 27	A.
		5824		587	0.810	93 34	185 59 185 1	59 29	+ 5 14	В.
	. 1	5825		587	0.817	94 58	183 11	58 31	+652	C.
	4.	582€	215-616	586	0.699	258 11	276 15	56 41 122 16	+ 1, 26	D.
	i	5827		586	0.68≥	256 38	275 17	122 16 121 18	$-12 \ 37$	M.
	1	5828	1	586	0.644	253 13	273 48		-11 20	N.
		5829	!	586	0.624	251 41	270 51	119 49 116 52	' -11 14	ın.
	į	5830	i	587	0 402	78 38	215 40	61 41	10 11	n.
		5831		587	0.400	81 15	213 12	59 13	+ 8 44	. S.
	2	5832	i	587	0.471	84 28	211 54	57 55	+711 + 136	Т.
	. :	5833	0.0	587	0.489	93 48	209 3	55 4	-0.35	8.
	5.	5834	216.505		0.847	263 23	289 15	122 39	-12 18	t.
	1	5835 5836		586	0.823	262 29	286 30	119 54	-10 2	A.
	1	5837		586	0.820	259 11	287 7	120 31	-11 31	В.
		5838		586	0.809	259 16	288 22	121 46	-11 26	b.
		5839		587 587	0.304	94 25	225 8	58 32	+ 7 31	č.
		5840		589	0.397	94 39	223 49	57 13	+84	c.
(3.		217.530	586	0.972	113 29	223 12	56 36	-18 39	Š.
	1	5842		586	0.884	267 30 266 22	302 35	121 27.	-11 47	M.
	:	5843		587	0.060	266 22 58 40	300 58	119 50	-11 2	m.
	į	5844		589	0.892	117 20	239 22	58 14	+643	O.
		5845		559	0.917	117 35	185 37 182 51	4 29	-19 31	Р.
	ļ	5846		590	0.966	94 29	164 5	1 43	-18 38	p.
	1	5847	1	590	0.964	95 41	160 37	342 57 339 29	+ 5 13	Α.
8			219.605	587	0.473	286 27	268 22	339 29 57 48	+ 4 28 + 8 58	В.
	1	5849	i	587	0.439	287 6	260 41	56 7		A.
		5850		592	0.494	239 26	263 28	52 54	+ 8 28	a.
		5851		592	0.487	237 51	263 48	53 14	-12 44	M. N.
		5852 5052		598	0.483	237 22	261 12	50 38	-13 15	O.
		5853	1	589	0.611	132 35	214 36	4 2	-16 53	В.
		5854	1	589	0-599	130 16	215 50	5 16	-21 46	С.
		5855 5856	1		0.575	128 42	212 8	1 34	-19 44	b.
		5857			0.564	127 12	210 24	359 50	-19 7	c.
		5858			0.674	126 44	205 56	355 22	-17 54	S.
		5859	:		0.678	125 48	208 22	357 48	-16 12	š. :
		860	,		0.855	122 58	186 34	336 0	-18 7	т.
		861	1		0-859 0-764	115 30	185 24	334 50	-19 38	f.
	1		1	000	0.10.	96 2	196 32	345 58	+ 4 31	Ρ.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.							341° 38	+ 6 7	Q.
Aug. 8.	5862	219.605	590	0.777	95 5	192 12 190 59	340 25	+ 4 33	R.
_	5863		590	0.795	90 1 89 9	190 59 189 24	338 50	+ 4 58	p.
	5864	1	590	0.782	89 9 92 49	188 15	337 41	+ 1 31	q.
	5865		590 590	0.819 0.821	89 44	189 32	338 58	+ 1 11	r.
10.	5866 5867	221-482	587	0.795	287 54	296 32	59 21	+ 9 0	Aº.
10.	±5868	1221 102	592	0.782	262 2	290 6	52 55	-12 26	Α.
İ	5869	1	592	0.765	261 54	289 40	52 29	-13 19	В. С.
	5870	1	592	0.754	259 39	288 41	51 30	-13 55 $-12 5$	а.
	5871	1	59≉	0.748	258 58	285 29	48 18 48 59	-14 51	b.
	5872	i	592	0.711	256 35	286 10 284 0	46 59	-11 19	c.
	5873		592	0.708	256 22 305 29	284 0	16 32	+ 7 58	M.
	5874	1	593	0.208	182 20	242 38	5 27	-1642	D.
	5875		589	0·302 0·327	178 18	241 43	4 32	-1829	E.
	5876 5877		589 589	0.354	175 28	236 1	358 50	-19 26	d.
	5878		589	0.395	170 50	237 16	0 5	-17 21	e.
	5879		589	0.383	171 17	238 21	1 10	-20 11 -21 50	T.
	5880	!	589	0.408	165 41	235 5	357 54	-21 50 $-17 46$	F.
	5881	i	588	0.375	158 41	, 233 29	356 18	-18 21	f.
	5882	ĺ	588	0.381	157 2	233 28	356 17 341 20	-16 57	Q.
	5883	1	591	0.552	135 45	218 31 215 21	341 20	-18 54	R.
	5884	1	591	0.558	136 5 138 19	216 2	338 51	-19 48	s.
	5885	i	591	0.567	138 19 139 29	213 51	336 40	-20 40	q.
	5886		591 591	0.561	136 47	212 56	335 45	-22 5	r.
	5887 5888		591	0.588 0.596	131 8	911 42	334 31	-22 47	۹.
	5889	1	591	0.633	129 17	211 35	334 24	-22 27	s1.
	5890		591	0.647	126 40	209 58	332 47	-23 27	s".
	5891	1	590	0.412	89 50	221 5	343 54	+ 1 40	K.
	5892	1	590	0.433	90 39	220 35	343 24	+ 3 28	L.
	5893	1	590	0.431	92 0	219 42	342 31	$+ 457 \\ + 627$	i.
	5894		590	0.482	94 37	218 44	341 33	1	w.
	5895	1	590	0.495	93 35	217 21 215 57	340 10	$\begin{array}{c} + 4 25 \\ + 7 5 \end{array}$	w1
	5896	į.	590	0.529	91 35 88 12	215 57 214 56	337 45	+ 1 26	u.
	5897	1	590 590	0.554	88 12	212 11	335 0	+ 2 44	u¹.
11.	5898 5899	222.466	592	0.567	262 36	298 55	47 46	-12 54	, A.
11.	5900	222.400	592	0.902	265 8	303 44	52 25	-13 40	В.
	5901	1	592	0.923	266 15	300 48	49 39	-12 22	a.
	5902	1	592	0.925	266 26	302 19	- 51 10	-12 39	ь.
	5903		588	0.302	191 13	246 24	355 15	-17 58	C.
	5904		588	0.323	192 57	247 56	356 47	16 50	D.
	5905		588	0.338	195 7	245 17	354 8	-1658 -1744	d.
	5906		588	0.357	196 37	247 34 252 59	356 25	21 6	E.
	5907		589	0.315	208 58	252 59 248 47	357 38	-18 12	e^0 .
	5908		589 589	0.339	210 20 217 5	255 32	4 23	-17 55	e^1 .
	5909		589	0·342 0·387	223 5	250 29	359 20	_20 22	e".
	5910 5911		589	0.387	214 20	254 47	3 38	_16 28	F.
	5911	I	589	0.387	225 34	256 56	5 47	-18 24	f.
	5913		589	0.392	226 52	257 22	6 13	-18 17	G.
	5914		589	0.399	225 0	255 12	4 3	-18 17	g.
	5915		590	0.215	73 33	233 7	341 58	+ 2 34	H.
	5916		590	0.264	76 57	235 52	344 43	+ 4 41	h.
	5917	1	590	0.242	77 43	230 38	339 29	+ 4 50	11.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Tim of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue	Contro	Angle of Position	f Longitud		Helio- d graphic e. Latitud	al Spo
1864.				-		!			
Aug. 1	1. 5918	222-466	590	0.341	79° 31	229 52			,
Ü	5919		590	0.306	84 1		-00 10		
	5920	!	590	0.361	87 6			1 1 ~ ~	
	5921	i	590	0.299	79 31		341 22		_
	5922 5923		590	0.376	88 36		342 14		
	5924		591	0.337	149 59		334 52		
	5925		591 591	0.366	141 43		338 19	_22	
	5926		591	0.389	143 15 149 10		343 8	_23 3	3 Q.
	5927		591	0.477	145 28		344 40	_21 20) R.
	5928		591	0.451	146 13		341 39 339 1	1 -19 59	
	5929	į	591	0.502	151 5	234 5	339 1 342 56	-20 36	
	5930	i	591	0.489	148 30	233 54	342 45	$-20 \ 41$	
	5931		591	0.495	153 27	232 35	341 26	-21 27 $-21 14$	4.
	5932	į	591	0.508	154 33	234 25	343 16	-21 30	. 1
12.	5933	1000 -00	593	0.446	297 26	268 12	. 17 3	+ 8 28	
12.	5935	223.586	592	0.991	271 2	314 22	47 20	-12 10	
	5936	,	592 588	0.964 0.384	268 42	316 38	49 36	_12 13	
	5937		588	0.417	241 45	262 43	355 41	_16 21	В.
	5938		588	0.442	239 9 237 4	261 1 262 27	353 59	-1750	b.
	5939	'	589	0.465	244 52	262 27 269 12	355 25	-17 7	b ⁰ .
	5940	· i	589	0.476	246 24	266 44	2 10 359 42	_20 37	C.
	5941		589	0.497	251 50	270 5	359 42 3 3	-18 56 -21 15	D.
	5942		589	0.508	248 41	271 14	4 12	_21 15 _17 2	Ε.
	5943		589	0.481	255 19	271 26	4 24	_ 18 22	c.
	5944		589	0.469	253 37	265 28	358 26	-18 9	d. e.
	5945 5946		589	0.512	~01 00	268 10	, 1 8	_19 17	x.
	5947		590	0.102	335 27	251 39	344 37	+ 5 45	M.
	5948		590 590	0.129	341 29	248 33	341 31	+ 4 3	N.
	5949	: 1	590	0·157 0·166	26 25	252 29	345 27	+ 4 2	m.
į	5950		591	0.276	37 48 221 37	249 41 245 53	342 39	+ 2 13	n.
1	5951		591	0.294	219 42	245 53 247 55	338 51	-19 4	O.
!	5952	1	591	0-312	202 21	246 44	340 53 339 42	-19 54	Р.
i	5953	-	591	0.387	189 56	248 50	339 42 341 48	-20 12 $-21 17$	ÇQ.
1	5954		591	0.353	184 19	247 11	340 9	$-21 17 \\ -21 6$	R.
	5955 5956		591	0.360	195 42	244 28	337 26	-18 41	S. o.
1	5957	1	591 591	0.394	186 53	245 16	338 14	_18 40	p.
1	5958	!	591 593	0.401	177 26	249 19	342 17	_20 14	q.
13.	5959	224-629	0,00	0·623 0·531	295 33	283 19	16 17	+ 8 17	T.
i	5960	221029		0.572	257 14 255 37	278 42	356 52	16 35	М.
1	5961			0.591	255 37 251 6	273 37 275 6	351 47	-16 56	N.
	5962			0.608	249 12	277 4	353 16 355 14	-17 24	m.
1	5963	1	589	0.627	255 3	280 55	359 5	$-17 \ 41$ $-18 \ 17$	n.
i	5964	į	589	0.634	261 3	282 44	0 54	-20 2	S.
-	5965			0.688	259 26	283 30	1 40	-19 53	T.
į.	5966 5967	1		0.676	257 31	280 13	358 23	-20 24	t.
	5968	1		0.652	260 27	285 38	3 48	-20 38	Ü.
	5969			0.679	262 22	287 16	5 26	-20 55	u.
	5970			0.693	264 8	286 48	4 58	-20 55	v.
	5971	ı		·384 ·395	198 31	260 5	338 15	-18 30	A.
i	5972				199 42	261 4 262 7	339 14	-19 40	a.
	5973	- 1	-04	101	207 26	262 7	340 17	-18 14	В.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.					ad	259 4	337° 14	-21° 17	c.
Aug. 13.	5974	224-629	591	0.411	223 36		338 40	-21 14	c.
	5975	1	591	0.418	229 26	260 30 264 20	342 30	-21 15	Ď.
ĺ	5976		591	0.433	226 42	262 45	340 55	-20 57	E.
1	5977		591	0.422	231 31	262 45	340 55	-20 25	d.
-{	5978	,	591	0.429	228 8		341 22	-21 38	e.
1	5979		591	0.439	234 26	263 12 259 14	337 24	+ 4 49	F.
	5980		590	0.305	292 45	259 14 259 5	337 15	+ 5 20	G.
1	5981		590	0.331	297 46	261 26	339 36	+ 4 5	H.
	5982		590	0.267	335 35	263 9	341 19	+ 3 2	f.
ļ	5983		590	0.347	298 38	262 44	340 54	+ 4 22	u.
į	5984	:	590	0.357	306 35 309 25	298 25	16 35	+85	F.
1	5985		593	0.762		290 19	342 17	+ 4 48	A.
15.	5986	226.476	590	0.653		290 29	342 27	+ 5 32	В.
1	5987		590	0.661	296 8 297 29	289 33	341 31	+ 5 31	C.
ţ	5988		590	0.679		292 25	344 23	+ 4 24	D.
:	5989	i	590	0.694	298 50 302 12	291 36	343 34	+ 3 36	a.
	5990		590	0.576	308 41	291 22	343 20	+ 4 9	ь.
1	5991	1	590	0.602	306 16	288 47	340 45	+ 4 14	c.
}	5992	!	590	0.609	252 11	285 31	337 29	-18 37	E.
	5993	!	591	0.604	262 26	288 21	340 19	_21 18	F.
:	5994	i	591	0.612	260 41	289 16	341 14	-21 9	G.
	5995		591	0.637	259 57	284 49	336 47	-20 10	` e.
	5996		591	0.655		287 27	339 25	-19 32	f.
,	5997		591	0.645		286 5	338 3	- 20 50	g.
i	5998	1	591	0.666		285 21	337 19	- 20 19	. Н.
	5999	i	591	0.755		286 6	338 4	_20 41	h.
;	6000	1	591	0.762	275 34 269 51	303 5	355 3	-17 42	· M.
	6001	1 .	588	0.834	269 51 269 9	304 48	356 46	-18 47	N.
	6002	1	588	0.846		298 7	350 5	-1857	m.
	6003		588	0.851	271 54 267 11	307 10	359 8	-19 11	O.
	6004	1	589	0.874	269 42	308 7	0 5	-1s 58	· 0.
	6005	1	589	0-882		306 49	358 47	- 20 39	: P.
	6006	1	589	0.909		309 4	1 2	18 28	, p.
	6007	i	589	0.889		314 36	6 34	-19 39	₹Q.
	6008		589	0.895		313 4	5 2	-19 28	q.
	6009	1	589	0.911		325 42	17 40	+ 7 14	q. T.
	6010	İ	593	0.948		324 34	16 32	+ 8 10	t.
	6011		593	0.957	296 53	332 14	341 4	+ 5 23	A
18.	6012	229.518		0-988 0-991	297 47	334 35	343 25	+ 4 42	a.
	6013	3	590	0.962	269 28	330 9	338 59	-19 16	: B.
	6014	1	591	0.129	79 0	243 6	251 56	+335	C.
	6015		595	0.129	81 0	241 53	250 43	+27	c.
	6016		595	0.205	304 15	256 3	264 53	+ 3 13	, A
19.	6017	230.524		0.203		254 55	263 45	+ 5 40	; a.
	6018		595	0.131	311 38	258 18	267 8	+ 4 3	a.
	6019	1	595	0.414		273 12	282 2	+ 3 53	A
20.		231-496		0.355	294 40 290 21	272 47	281 37	+41	a.
	6021		595			269 21	278 11	+ 2 58	a'
	6022		595	0.428	291 55	203 21	~.0 11		Ì
21		232.479		1	1	1	:		-
25		236.47		oo't visible.		i	1	1	1
26				0.100	910 0	269 48	108 20	+ 5 13	A
30		241.52		0.193	312 8	266 22	104 54	+ 5 7	E
	6027	1	596	0.185	324 59	267 22	105 54	+ 5 39	C
	6028		596	0.167	331 40	268 46	107 18	+ 7 56	
1	6029	i	596	0.156	355 24	200 40	101 10	1	1

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Centre	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot
1864.	Cana				-				
Aug. 30.	6030	241.524	596	0.145	6 26	263 52	102 24	+ 6 13	b.
	6032		596	0.149	8 23	262 46	101 18	+ 7 43	c.
	6033		597	0.764	135 28	217 45	56 17	-21 3	D.
Sept. 1.	6034	243-465	597 596	0.771 0.583	134 26	216 46	55 18	-22 33	d.
ocpt. x.	6035	210 100	596	0.512	304 24 306 29	296 40	107 40	+ 7 43	M.
	6036		596	0.517		294 32	105 32	+ 7 6	m.
	6037		597	0.489	160 49	292 25 248 56	103 25	+ 7 27	n.
	6038		597	0.483	161 14	249 12	59 56 60 12	-22 21	В.
3.	6039	245.486	596	0.892	298 37	323 51	60 12 106 11	-22 2	ь.
	6040	1	596	0.834	301 25	321 28	103 48	$+547 \\ +57$	A.
	6041		597	0.407	223 52	278 12	60 32	$\begin{array}{cccc} + & 5 & 7 \\ -20 & 4 \end{array}$	a. B.
	6042	1 '	597	0.405	224 13	277 6	59 26	-21 13	1
	6043 6044	i.	599	0.898	100 46	201 35	343 55	+659	ь.
,		345.400	599	0.900	101 17	202 17	344 37	+755	c.
5.	6045	247.490	597	0.654	259 37	305 13	59 7	-19 30	A.
	6047		597 507	0.662 0.684	258 3	304 29	58 23	-20 27	A.
	6048	i	597 599	0.622	260 25	303 20	57 14	-20 35	a.
1	6049	1	599 599	0.626	99 6 100 6	230 26	344 20	+ 7 29	B.
15.	6050	257-493	600	0.973	100 6 283 20	230 49	344 43	+756	b.
	6051	, 20, 130	600	0.968	282 5	5 43	337 44	+ 5 4	Α.
	6052	*	601	0.424	135 20	4 52 259 11	336 53	+630	a.
ļ	6053	1	601	0.433	134 31	255 50	231 12	- 9 39	В.
ì	6054	,	601	0.436	129 30	256 6	227 51 228 7	- 7 40	Ç.
:	6055		601	0.448	132 20	258 32	230 33	-815 -728	D.
:	6056		601	0.481	132 20	254 26	226 27	-728 -921	E.
1	6057		601	0.476	132 45	255 15	227 16	-11 46	b.
	6058	:	601	0.467	129 24	256 26	228 27	-10 4	c.
1.7	6059		601	0.492	128 g	254 27	226 28	-10 26	е.
17.	6060 6061	259.458	601a	0.157	204 42	270 43	229 3	- 7 34	Α.
	6062	,	601a	0.193	211 10	269 34	227 54	- 8 48	a.
	6063	:	602 602	0.824	115 39	227 59	186 19	- 5 10	В.
19.	0 0	261-528	6010	0.837	114 49	227 3	185 23	- 5 32	b.
- 3.	6065	201 320	6014	0.567	280 1	299 8	228 6	- 8 2	A^o .
	6066		602	0·532 0·476	282 45 121 54	298 37	227 35	- 8 55	a".
	6067		602	0.491	121 54 122 9	258 33 256 18	187 31	- 5 20	\mathbf{B}^{o} .
20.	6068	262.458	601a	0.702	284 7	256 18 312 12	185 16	- 6 43	b⁰.
1	6069		601a	0.674	285 12	312 33	227 58 228 19	8 8 '	S.
1	6070		602	0.266	133 8	271 52	228 19 187 38	- 7 11 - 5 18	8.
	6071		602	0.278	130 7	270 21	186 7	- 5 49 ·	т.
21.	6072	263.416	602	0.094	192 33	255 33	187 44	- 5 52	t. M.
00 1	6073		602	0.099	195 38	286 50	189 1	- 6 4	m.
22.	6074	264.482	602	0.287	281 46	299 29	186 33	- 5 45	Α.
23. 24.	6075	265.490	No spot		i		:		44.
24.	6076 6077	266 524	602a	0.867	276 21	343 11	191 17	- 8 43	A.
27.	6078	260-400	604	0.961	124 22	227 45	75 51	-15 55	В.
~/.	6079	269-490	603	0.354	249 34	303 48	119 50	- 12 24	Ã.
-	6080		603	0.351	245 6	301 32	117 34	-12 47	a.
	6081		603	0.348	241 58	301 1	117 3	-13 14	a ^e .
ĺ	6082		604	0.577	139 7	259 17	75 19	-16 22	В.
28.	0	270-661	603	0·573 0·555	139 1 : 267 9 :	259 46	75 48 .	-15 59	b.
i	6084		603	0.537	267 9 269 22	318 49 319 39	118 14	-12 11	Μ.
	6085		000	0 004	209 22	319 39	119 4	-12 52	m.

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.			_		163 57	277 22	76 47	-1ê· 7	a.
Sept. 28.	6086	270.661	604	0.379		330 9	118 29	-11 33	A.
29.	6087	271.454	603	0.633	275 11	218 52	7 2	+ 3 43	В.
l l	6088	1	605	0.964	104 47 106 33	235 40	7 19	+ 2 25	Α.
30.	6089	272-619	605	0.879	106 33 104 49	249 19	7 44	+ 2 7	Aº.
Oct. 1.	6090	273.552	605	0.722	124 25	224 36	343 1	-14 50	В.
į.	6091		606	0.958	95 44	275 30	7 8	+ 3 48	A.
3.	6092	275.440	605	0.405	129 47	251 8	342 46	-15 51	В.
	6093		606		71 55	290 35	6 43	+ 3 3	a.
4.	6094	276-532	605	0.174	211.18	301 2	17 10	-18 25	a°.
	6095	:	605#	0.384	199 17	299 4	15 12	-17 31	a1.
	6096	i	605a	0.588	138 6	266 18	342 26	-16 4	A.
_	6097	255.500	606	0.423	241 19	315 52	17 45	-18 20	M.
5.	6098	277.538	605a	0.388	228 40	314 41	16 34	-17 11	m.
1	6099	1	. 605a - 606	0.444	147 5	281 23	343 36	-16 15	0.
C	6100	278-462	605a	0.602	259 19	328 32	17 18	-17 58	A.
6.	6101	218-402	605a	0.534	252 42	328 40	17 26	-18 41	B.
	6102	1	606	0.295	179 43	293 29	342 15	-16 34	a.
_	6103 6104	279.528	605a	0.671	264 18	344 16	: 17 55	-18 7	A.
7.	6105	219 520	606	0.291	239 10	309 43	343 22	16 26	: B.
	6105	1	607	0.849	108 58	245 52	279 31	+737	; C.
8,		280-480	605a	0.812	273 40	356 52	17 0	-17 2	· M
0,	6108	200 100	606	0.438	263 6	323 12	343 20	-16 22	m-
į	6109	1	607	0.692	103 58	261 36	281 44	+747	n.
	6110	1	607	0.743	104 26	257 21	277 29	+53	. 0.
1	6111	1	607	0.769	106 22	259 49	279 57	+ 3 47	P.
10.		282.458		0.774	281 14	350 17	342 22	-16 33	A
10.	6113	202 100	607	0.229	88 30	290 32	282 37	+730	a.
1	6114		607	0.354	95 37	285 45	277 50	+ 4 33	a
11		283-440		0.962	288 53	4 29	342 38	-16 28	N
12		284.518		0.908	286 14	3 29	326 21	- 3 43	N
15		287.469		0.362	259 23	329 7	250 13	-10 39	A
1	6118	1	609	0.384	257 3	325 4	246 10	- 9 15	B
	6119		609	0.411	249 47	326 17	247 23	+ 723	C
l	6120	1	609	0.399	252 29	328 l	249 7	- 8 40	a
	6121		609	0.442	255 5	322 38	243 44	-10 42	b
	6122		609	0.437	253 34	323 19	244 25	-11 18 $-12 47$	e I
	6123		609	0.454	248 24	321 11	242 17	$\frac{-12}{1}$ 47	d
18	6124	290.47		0.887	283 14	7 50	246 9	-12 17	A
19				0.811	129 9	268 29	132 39	-12 17	A
21		293-47		0.708	133 59	297 24	133 16 135 31	-12 44	
	6127		610	0.711	133 0	299 39	132 47	-14 12	
1	6128		610	0.749	134 2		130 59	-15 19	
-	6129		610	0.754	134 29			-11 6	
29		1		0.248	187 32			-12 11	1 -
	6131		610	0.257	185 2 174 40		134 33	-12 14	
-	6132		610	0.263		1 1111	131 57	-14 39	
i	6133	1	610	0.304	169 30			-16 5	
	6134		610	0.287	168 13			1	
:	6135		610	0.312	129		1		
ŧ	6136		611	0.874	130				
1	6137		611	0.880	1		11	1	
	6138		612		129 1		' :	1	0
1	6139		612						9
	6140		613						
-	614	1 1	. 019		1 101 7			1	1

TABLE III. (continued).

	Date	. N	o. Mean of Su pictu	n- Group	in from	Angle	Longitu from No		al graphica	
	1864			_				-		
0	ct. s	61		-	0.398	259 10	342	134 2	5 -10 55	á .
		61		610	0.421	£64 3€				
		61		610	0.457	261 7				
		614		611	0.497	265 10				. ,
		614		611	0.509	142 20	-30 16		6 -16 57	
		614		612	0.622	143 5		1 02		
		614		612	0.629	136 39			_, _, 00	1 ~.
		615		613	0.484	85 48		, 05 20	, -,	d.
		615		613	0.495	88 39	288 49	81 12		E. F.
		615		613	0.505	85 23	1	82 12		G.
		615		613	0.517	87 34	285 11	77 34	+ 7 24	
	28			3 611	0.497	89 22	283 43	76 6	, , ,	g. f.
		615	5	611	0.502	265 47	346 15 346 58	82 31	-14 10	M.
		615		612	0.437	258 24	337 46	83 14	,	m.
		6158	,	612	0.440	249 29	336 5	72 21	-13 57 $-12 48$	S. T.
		6159		612	0.402	253 7	333 17	69 33	-13 12	5.
		6161		612	0.395	247 29	335 59	72 15	-16 17	t.
		6165		612	0.423	250 47 251 57	335 46	72 2	-16 51	P.
		6163		612	0.436	251 57 249 14	334 45	71 1	-17 21	p.
		6164		612	0.388	249 26	333 49 334 55	70 5	-18 48	Q.
		6165	1	614	0.822	109 22	261 21	71 11 357 37	-17 35 + 4 17	q. R.
		6166	i	614	0.854	108 30	264 58	. 1 14	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	rl.
		6167		614	0.841	109 26	262 51	359 7	+ 3 38	r2.
	31.	6169	303-549	614	0.867	107 31	266 7	2 23	- 1 31	r³.
		6170		614	0.254	281 35 102 37	17 14	70 9	-16 38	A.
		6171	i	614	0.267	104 23	311 12 310 14	4 7	+ 3 29	В.
		6172		614	0.289	106 42	309 16	3 9	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	C.
		6173	1	614	0.305	107 43	307 26	0 21	$\begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	D. E.
		6174		614	0.307	106 0	307 4	359 59	+ 1 22	b.
		6175 6176		614	0.341	106 42	306 0	358 55	+ 0 50	c.
		6177	1	614	0·357 0·374	108 26	304 23	357 18	+ 1 42	d.
		6178		614	0.365	107 6 107 22	303 7	356 2	+ 3 18	e. ;
	1	6179	1	614	0.383	109 55	303 6	357 18 356 1	$\begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	f.
	1	6180	1	615	0.963	106 55	246 48	285 32	$ \begin{array}{c cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	r.
		6181		615	0.965	107 46	248 13	286 57	+ 3 38	t.
v.	3.	$6182 \\ 6183$	306-465	616	0.989	104 8	223 56	262 40	+ 6 19	H.
	1	6184	,000 100	614 614	0.441 0.396	301 10 299 55	6 36	3 58	+ 3 49	M.
		6185		614	0.354	303 23	4 14 0 24	1 36	+ 4 37	Mº.
		6186	-	614	0.337	306 0	358 38	357 46 356 0	+ 4 49 + 2 8	A.
		6187		615	0.571	104 33	287 37	284 59	+ 2 3 17	a. B.
	-	6188	1 1	615	0.579	105 9	287 57	285 19	+ 4 56	b.
	ĺ	6189 6190	;	615	0.587	105 53	288 22	285 44	+ 3 55	C.
		6191	:	615	0.602	104 4	286 24	283 46	+ 4 33	c.
		6192	1	616	0.857	103 20 104 50	267 12 268 48	264 34 266 10	+ 5 15	D.
		6193		616	0.855	104 43	265 35	266 10 262 57	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	E.
		6194		616	0.888	105 22	263 50	261 12	+ 4 9	d. e.
	4.	6195	005	616	0.895	106 23	267 35	264 57	+ 5 58	e°.
	-	6196 6197	307-500		0.643	299 23	21 13	3 35	+ 3 36	Α.
-	_	1131		614	0.659	300 37	20 13	2 55	+ 2 29	В.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from . Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864					0 . 1	ı å ré	2 38	+ 4 17	a.
ov. 4.	6198	307-500	614	0.667	299 45	19 56	359 2	+ 2 29	b.
VOV. 2.	6199		614	0.695	302 6	16 20		+ 3 46	F.
- 1	6200		615	0.387	101 7	304 44		+ 4 42	f.
1	6201		615	0.389	101 17	303 46	286 28		Ġ.
İ	-	1	615	0.405	98 41	304 44	287 26		
į	6202	1	615	0.419	98 42	301 1	283 43	+ 4 5	g.
	6203		615	0.424	97 28	301 43	284 25	+ 4 20	g¹.
	6204	}	616	0.682	102 36	284 48	267 30	+ 7 55	Μ.
	6205	1	616	0.661	102 0	283 53	266 35	+ 6 22	m.
1	6206			0.699	104 50	281 20	264 2	+ 5 46	N.
	6207	1	616	0.719	104 22	279 23	262 5	+ 6 37	n.
	6208	1	616	0.713	103 59	278 55	261 37	+ 3 4	O.
	6209	1	616		104 23	277 48	260 30	+ 5 33	0.
	6210	1	616	0.763	287 46	61 53	263 5	+69	A.
14.	6211	317.476	616	0.994		343 35	184 47	- 9 9	a.
	6212	1	617	0.224		284 7	125 19	-10 33	a".
	6213		618	0.897	123 8	343 27	127 37	-11 12	A·
18.	6214	321-496	618	0.221	201 51	342 46	126 56	-12 31	В.
	6215	1	618	0.239	199 23		124 28	-10 22	C.
	6216		618	0.228	194 32	340 18	125 5	-10 23	D.
	6217	1	618	0.244	193 18	340 55	118 36	-13 6	a.
	6218		619	0.292	172 1	334 26	1	-14 13	b.
	6219	i	619	0.298	171 42	335 8	119 18	+12 20	c.
	6220	ļ	620	0.677	86 46	300 46	84 56		d.
	6221		620	0.713	91 1	296 22	80 32		В.
		325.462	618	0.824	274 44	38 41	125 11		1
22.	6222	323.402	618	0.801	273 6	40 33	127 3	-11 17	b.
	6223			0.799	271 3	40 6	126 36	-11 37	C
	6224	1	618	0.304	338 43	31 55	118 25	-14 38	M.
	6225		619	0.337	339 1	350 48	78 43	+16 0	N.
	6226		620		247 31	6 57	94 52	-14 56	D.
	6227	1	621	0.417	246 30	4 21	92 16	-12 36	E.
	6228		621	0.395		4 12	92 7	-11 31	d.
	6229	į	621	0.359		6 38	94 33	-11 49	· e.
	6230		621	0.328	242 19	358 32	86 27	-12 21	f.
	6231		621	0.312	238 16		87 37	-10 36	. A.
25	6232	328-514	621	0.872	269 35		91 5	-11 45	B.
~~	6233		621	0.865	267 33	46 28		-11 58	C.
	6234		621	0.849	268 20	48 30	93 7	-11 6	D.
	6235		621	0.826	269 50	48 13		+14 9	a.
	6236		622	0.482	81 33	317 47		+12 22	b.
	6237		622	0.495	84 24	321 40	6 17		1
	6238		622	0.505	86 22	323 46	8 23	, ,	d.
;	6239		622	0.571	87 32	318 37	3 14	+11 58	1
			622	0.536	79 42	317 54	2 31	+12 14	e.
1	6240		622	0.584	80 46	317 13	1 50	+12 34	f.
	6241	. 1	623	0.789	89 1	300 12	344 49	+13 4	E
	6249		623	0.805	90 4	299 30	344 7	+11 43	
	6243			0.806	91 4		343 25	+12 38	1
:	624		623		89 39	,	343 34	+12 57	
	624		623	0.794	94 7	1	336 40	+ 9 51	S
`	624	6	624	0.853				+11 41	8.
	624	7	624	0.861					3 A
2	9. 624	8 332.59		0.502				1 '	
~	624	9	622		311 21			1	
	625		622						
	625		622	0-453					
	625		622						
1	625		622	1 - 00/	322	2 15 54	3 35	1 + 1% 3	

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No	Mean Tin of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue	Contro	Angle o			Helio- graphica e. Latitude	
1864.									
Nov. 25			622	0-409	320 36	15 45	3 26	+12 29	1 -
	625		622	0.428	319 13		2 19	+16 46	
	625		622	0.387	319 10		0 13	+14 8	,
	625 625		623	0.247	2 18		344 51	+11 5	
	625		623	0.244	5 48		343 38	+12 12	
	626		623	0.259	6 28	356 19	344 0	+13 48	
	626		624	0.192	21 9		337 39	+ 9 49	1
	626		624	0.216	25 43		336 32	+11 24	8.
	626		624	0.215	26 28	0.10 10	333 54	+11 3	T.
	626		624	0.229	35 58	02	334 13	+10 42	t.
	626		625	0.238	37 40	347 58	335 39	+12 35	q.
	6260	3	625	0.928	93 20	285 22	273 3	+ 7 22	Q.
	626;	7	625	0.944	93 20	286 45	274 26	+ 8 38	R.
	6268	3	626	0.953	106 55	285 6	272 47	+ 7 17	r.
Dec. 1.	6269	334.454	622	0.802	301 16	284 30 47 5	272 11	- 4 49	P.
	6270		622	0.811	300 26	43 48	7 28	+11 58	S.
	6271		622	0.826	298 55	47 53	4 11 8 16	+14 41	8.
	6272		622	0.833	299 44	45 1	5 24	+1251 +1024	T.
	6273		622	0.845	298 16	43 22	3 45	+16 57	t.
	6274		622	0.714	301 2	41 54	2 17	+11 10	q.
	6275		622	0.756	302 15	39 54	0 17	+11 25	m.
	6276		622	0.744	302 42	45 55	6 18	+11 26	n. o.
	6277 6278	i	622		304 6	44 41	5 4	+12 38	p.
	6279		622	0.783	305 50	44 12	4 35	+11 18	p¹.
	6280	!!!	623 623	0.506	308 11	24 5	344 28	+12 20	A.
	6281	1	624	0.517	309 44	23 44	344 7	+11 13	Aº.
	6282	i	624	0·421 0·426	313 13 310 7	15 10	335 33	+10 27	В.
	6283		624	0.444	$\frac{310}{311} \frac{7}{20}$	16 6	336 29	+11 22	b.
	6284	:	624	0.439	308 1	12 57 14 57	333 20	+12 13	C.
1	6285	1	624	0.449	306 5	14 57 15 16	335 20	+12 59	c.
1	6286	i (625	0.683	89 49	314 10	335 39	+10 2	d.
	6287	1 !	625	0.681	89 3	313 29	273 52	$+756 \\ +842$	M.
2.	6258		626	0.711	108 26	312 49	273 12	+ 8 42 - 5 28	N.
2.	6289	335.504	622	0.867	303 15	60 34	6 3	+14 49	O. A.
1	6290	. 1	622	0.911	299 18	57 45	3 14	+15 15	В.
ŀ	6291 6292	1	622	0.888	301 52	59 6	4 35	+12 26	č.
	6293	1	622	0.055	298 0	54 35	0 4	+12 27	a.
i	6294		622	0.936	302 14	57 41	3 10	+11 1	b.
- 1	6295	1	622	0.940	297 53	55 57	1 26	+11 18	c.
	6296	1	623	0.948	297 59	59 9	4 38	+12 1	d.
	6297		623	0.698	304 29 305 44	37 50	343 19	+11 52	E.
- 1	6298	1	624	0.633	304 32	39 13 26 55	344 42	+13 14	е.
1	6299			0.616	305 55	/	332 24	+ 9 36	S.
	6300	: j	- 1	0.595	304 25	30 45 29 57	336 14 335 26	+10 19	s.
- 1	6301			0.588	301 55	31 10	336 39	+11 20	T.
1	6302	1		0.487	84 47	328 43	274 12	+1151 + 86	t.
1	6303	i i		0.491	85 13	327 16	272 45		Х.
	6304			0.502	109 0	327 53	273 22	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	х.
5.	6305	338-468	623	0-984	296 12	81 14	344 40	+1219	y. A.
1	6306			979	294 59	71 41	335 7	+10 18	В.
	6307			972	295 37	73 28	336 54	+12 57	C.
	6308 6309			966	294 6	72 9	335 35	+11 16	b.
1	2009		625 ()-287	321 31	11 17	274 43	+ 8 38	D.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1864.		1		2512	114 42	311 41	215 7	-11 45	E.
Dec. 5.	6310	338-468	627	0.712	114 42	310 36	213 58	-12 7	e.
	6311	1	627	0.723	161 32	355 38	214 52	-11 30	A.
8.	6312	341.584	627	0.246	161 12	354 13	213 27	-11 32	a.
	6313	•	627	0.249	279 22	23 30	268 13	- 4 47	A.
9.	6314	342.608	627a	0.417	278 34	22 53	227 36	_ 3 59	a.
	6315	1	627a	0.412	113 13	300 48	145 31	- 2 6	1).
	6316		628	0.921 0.879	273 48	66 51	131 11	- 7 38	A.
19.	6317	. 352.504	629	0.854	267 59	68 10	132 30	- 5 34	В.
	6318	j.	629	0.860	268 9	66 12	130 32	- 5 42	C.
	6319		629	0.799	269 18	69 1	133 21	- 4 3	D.
	6320	i i	629	0.814	268 29	69 25	133 45	- 6 43	a.
	6321		629	0.833	267 54	70 12	134 32	-65 -631	b.
	6322		629	0.798	269 8	70 55	135 15	1	c.
	6323	. 0.50.500	629	0.790	265 16	81 15	131 28	- 5 40 - 5 50	A. B.
20.	6324	353.500	629 629	0.955	269 3	83 45	133 58		a.
	6325	1	629	0.936	270 32	82 50	133 3	- 6 28	a. b.
	6326	1	629	0.928	267 14	82 13	132 26	- 4 56	1 -
	6327	1	629	0.922	268 23	79 51	130 4	_ 4 28	d.
	6328	;	629	0.926	271 10	83 59	134 12	-	M.
	6329		630	0.846	76 11	283 14	333 27	+18 15 + 16 1	N.
	6330		631	0.987	83 24	295 53	347 6	_ 2 21	A.
1865.	6331	3.535	632	0.934	266 49	101 15	298 12	+11 34	a.
Jan. 4.		2.222	633	0.412	60 47	8 57	205 54	+12 55	b.
	6333		633	0.476	61 36	5 29	202 26	+12 14	c.
	6334	i	633	0.483	61 0	3 35	200 32	+13 1	d.
	6335		633	0.508	62 25	0 9	197 6	+10 44	M.
-	6336	6.602	633	0.424	283 21	50 38	204 10	-12 24	N.
7	6337 6338	0 002	634	0.759	99 20	346 28		+10 4	M
_	1	8.479	633	0.744	276 53	82 55	209 45	-12 43	Nº.
9	6340	1 0 275	634	0.429	115 24	12 49	139 39 32 43	-21 27	P.
23		22.514	637	0.864	239 50	104 58	,	-22 49	Q.
20	6342		637	0.853	238 17	105 43	33 28 22 51	-18 16	p.
	6343		637	0.769	228 56	95 6	23 58	- 19 30	q.
	6344		637	0.778	237 11	96 13		- 3 34	A.
	6345		638	0.308	249 27	58 8	352 46 345 53	_ 4 36	В.
	6346		638	0.292	244 43	58 8 62 48	350 33	_ 4 23	C.
	6347		638	0.281	240 16	63 24	351 9	_ 5 1	a.
	6348		638	0.239	242 1	57 1	344 46	- 5 12	aº.
	6349		638	0.224	243 53	49 54	337 39	- 6 35	M
1	635		639	0.149	182 16	45 2	332 47	- 7 57	m.
	635		639	0.202	165 54 164 26	46 11	333 56	- 7 38	n.
1	635		639	0.187	1	48 6	335 51	+10 48	S.
į	635		640	0.185	351 30	46 5	333 50	+ 9 25	
i	635	4	640	0.180	2 2	46 55	334 40	+11 5	
ì	635		640	0.172	82 44	1	299 38	+ 2 51	
1	635	6	641	0.607	82 44		299 6		
1	635	7	641	0.611	103 8		294 31	-11 18	E
	635	8	642	0.695	103 8		288 58		
Ì	635	9	642	0.784			287 46	-14 23	
1	636		642	0.806	105 15 78 0		267 26	+ 6 17	
	636		643	0.946	,			0 1/	
Feb.	2. 636	32.53		0.988	274 9		1	+ 2 2	
	636		643a		214 54		1	-25 1	
1	. 630		645	0.566	210 3				5 (
i	63	65	645	0.561	210 9		1	1	

TABLE III. (continued).

Mean Tim of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
				-			-
32.532	645	0.498	211 36	79 14	224 53	-23° 50	D.
1	645	0.536	205 24	80 12	225 52	-23 44	E.
	645	0.540	203 21	74 45	220 24	-24 32	b.
	645	0.511	202 46	75 28	221 7	-25 30	c.
1	645 645	0.482	207 18	73 11	218 50	-25 48	d.
	644	0.474	202 23	74 22 66 58	220 1	-23 44	e.
	644	0.162	269 5	66 16	212 37 211 55	+ 2 56 + 3 33	F.
	646	0.402	162 48	55 16	201 55	$\begin{array}{rrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrr$	G.
	646	0.395	159 29	53 31	199 10	-21 52	g.
39.504	644	0.907	271 34	165 57	212 42	+ 3 19	M.
	644	0.885	273 10	165 36	212 21	+ 4 7	m.
	647a	0.282	6 29	63 6	109 51	+1647	P.
i	648	0.368	34 23	52 15	99 0	+15 28	R.
1	648 649	0.375	37 56	50 29	97 14	+17 37	r.
	649	0.264 0.265	141 11	52 38 51 18	99 23	-11 57 $-12 44$	S.
ĺ	649	0.272	135 39	51 57	98 42	-12 41	T.
	649	0.287	132 20	49 3	95 48	-10 15	s.
45.605	647	0.436	287 14	93 49	54 2	+14 41	A.
,	647	0.459	285 51	97 39	57 52	+15 24	a.
1	647	0.491	283 4	101 10	61 23	+16 25	В.
Ì	647	0.215	283 4	104 8	64 21	+13 17	b.
i i	649	0.398	218 29	89 40	49 53	-13 5	C.
	649 649	0.382 0.428	212 34 217 3	90 5	50 18	$-14 \ 41$ $-12 \ 20$	c.
47.514	647	0.902	264 29	87 14 1 135 45	47 27 68 53	$-12 20 \\ +13 22$	d. M.
1	649	0.865	231 38	130 19	63 27	-15 3	A.
1	649	0.863	230 18	129 47	62 55	-15 27	a.
55.434	650	0.908	236 30	144 33	325 21	- 9 7	Α.
1 1	651	0.264	249 59	97 11	277 59	+ 3 49	В.
58.507	651a	0.811	243 19	138 5	275 18	+ 0 28	P
	651a	0.855	244 59	140 31	277 44	- 3 43	p.
	6514	0.846	245 31	141 19	278 32	- 7 25	A.
	651 <i>a</i> 652	0.854 0.583	247 54 277 29	142 7 120 46	279 20	-517 + 1422	a.
1	652	0.575	276 46	120 46	257 59 258 29	+13 53	M. m.
	652	0.208	283 0	115 7	252 20	+16 52	N.
1 1	652	0.514	284 50	114 13	251 26	+16 9	n.
	653	0.887	52 35	26 55	164 8	+13 42	Ö.
	653	0.906	51 58	24 28	161 51	+12 57	0.
59.546	651u	0.900	243 32	157 19	279 47	- 3 53	M.
1	651a	0.889	244 27	155 19	277 47	- 4 56	m.
	652	0.754	268 29 260 24	133 23	255 51	$+13 30 \\ +13 54$	N.
	652 652	0.749	269 34 271 56	133 48 131 19	256 16 252 47	$+13 54 \\ +13 39$	o.
1 1	652	0.670	271 36	131 19 133 57	256 25	+14 24	0.
i 1	653	0.871	55 48	42 54	165 22	+12 26	P.
	653	0.904	54 0	40 53	163 21	+13 11	p.
61-616	652	0.972	259 45	161 16	254 22	+12 3	A.
	652	0.914	262 19	162 52	255 58	+13 26	a.
1	653	0.208	43 3	61 29	154 35	+12 46	M.
		0.519	43 43	_ 1	153 56		m.
		0.252		61 46	154 52		N.
66.46=							n. S.
•	66•465	653 653 653	653 0.519 653 0.522 653 0.597	653 0.519 43 43 653 0.522 45 9 653 0.597 46 27	653 0·519 43 43 60 50 653 0·522 45 9 61 46 653 0·597 46 27 53 14	653 0·519 43 43 60 50 153 56 653 0·522 45 9 61 46 154 52 653 0·597 46 27 53 14 146 20	653 0·519 43 43 60 50 153 56 +12 54 653 0·522 45 9 61 46 154 52 +15 13 653 0·597 46 27 53 14 146 20 +16 46

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1865.	_		0	0.632	266 42	13 2 31	156 20	+12 52	5.
Mar. 8.	6422	66-465	653	0.022	319 34	97 9	121 29	+22 54	T.
9.	6423	67-450	654 653	0.788	258 21	146 3	156 0	+12 27	A.
9.	6424 6425	07-430	653	0.785	257 17	147 47	157 43	+12 2	a.
	6426		654	0.517	289 12	115 58	125 55	+19 0	В.
	6427	1	654	0.489	287 55	116 40	126 37	+20 38	b.
	6428	1	654	0.492	287 59	116 41	126 38	+20 47	b ¹ .
	6429		655	0.467	59 25	68 5	78 2	+ 7 16	C.
	6430	67.479	653	0.791	259 3	146 18	155 38	+12 29	A.
	6431		653	0.789	256 55	148 9	157 29	+12 16	a.
	6432	1	654	0.519	288 42	116 48	126 8	+1852	В.
	6433		654	0.492	288 16	117 20	126 40	+20 41 +20 53	ь. b ¹ .
	6434		654	0.495	287 30	117 19	126 39 77 47	+ 7 14	c.
	6435		655a	0.464	59 11	68 27 104 20	55 2	+13 22	A.
13.	6436	71.444	655 655	0.246 0.253	309 24 317 27	104 20	55 3	+14 56	В.
	6437 6438	1	655	0.255	324 38	99 47	53 29	+13 21	č.
	6439	1	655	0.261	339 41	97 34	51 18	+15 1	a.
	6440	1	655	0.264	342 46	95 7	48 21	+16.58	b.
	6441		656	0.638	254 53	135 8	88 22	+ 7 27	D.
	6442		656	0.645	252 4	135 35	89 17	+62	c.
	6443	1	656	0.657	252 34	136 59	90 41	+742	d.
	6444		657	0.239	250 13	117 39	71 21	+ 1 16	P.
	6445		657	0.338	247 11	115 22	69 4	+ 2 21	р.
	6446	ĺ	657	0.272	242 22	113 18	67 0	_ 0 33	M.
	6447		657	0.211	245 47	110 43	64 25	_ 1 13	m.
	6448	1	657	0.198	241 41	109 23	63 5	+ 1 11	mº.
17.	6449	75.630	656	0.933	248 8	193 40	88 0	+ 7 44	A.
	6450		656	0.957	247 41	194 50	57 6	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	В.
!	6451	İ	655	0.744	259 46	162 46 158 26	57 6 52 46	$+14 \ 3$	b.
į Ę	6452	1	655	0.740	258 16	161 8	55 28	+13 59	c.
í	6453		655	0.662	259 36 260 9	160 28	54 48	+15 26	c.
20.	6454	70.400	655	0.625	253 38	203 45	57 30	+14 49	A.
20.	6455	78.490	655 655	0.886	254 29	202 8	55 53	+13 12	a.
į	6457	78.510	655	0.897	253 4	204 20	57 48	+14 45	A.
•	6458	78 310.	655	0.890	254 37	202 14	55 42	+13 17	a.
21.	6459	79.486	655	0.972	251 80	218 11	57 49	+14 4	M.
	6460	79.636	655	0.980	250 56	220 22	57 52	+14 0	M.
22.	6461	80.493	658	0.371	39 25	88 7	273 28	+10 22	A.
1	6462		658	0.370	43 58	86 19	271 40	+11 13	В.
	6463	1	658	0.393	40 34	86 59	272 20	+12 30 $+11 53$	C.
1	6464		658	0.387	41 23	88 27	273 48	+1153 + 957	a.
-	6465		658	0.404	45 0	89 42	275 3 260 13	+ 3 48	D.
i	6466		659	0.555	62 33	74 52	257 53	+ 3 38	E.
	6467		659	0.560	63 2	72 32 72 47	258 8	+ 3 42	F.
į	6468		659	0.672	65 8	66 7	251 28	+ 4 28	b.
Ī	6469		659	0.675	66 58	67 48	253 9	+ 3 19	c.
	6470	1	659	0.079	66 34	66 39	252 0	+ 2 8	d.
-	6472	1	659	0.750	67 44	60 7	245 28	+ 2 21	e.
	6473		659	0.772	64 47	59 38	244 59	+ 2 5	f.
, .	6474		659	0.783	63 31	61 15	246 36	+ 2 58	G.
•	6475	i	659	0.781	65 48	62 3	247 24	+ 2 13	g. M.
	6476		660	0.753	58 3	57 18	242 39	+10 12	
	6477		660	0.762	58 32	58 48	244 9	+10 29	m.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue	C	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node	Helio- graphical Longitude	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spo
1865.			 	-		-			
Mar. 22		80.493	660	0.794	56 19	55 1	218 21		
	6479		660	0.801	59 38		240 22	+ 8 20	A
	6480		661	0.555	95 23		241 58	+85	a1.
	6481		661	0.561	95 18	77 41 77 56	263 2	-13 52	P.
	6482		661	0.562	97 2	77 56	263 17	-13 13	p.
	6483		661	0.574	98 47	78 27	264 6	-14 12	Q.
	6484		661	0.569	107 2	78 23	263 48	-15 27	q.
	6485		661	0.573	108 53	79 8	263 44	-20 41	R.
23.		81-479	662	0.891	57 25	49 24	264 29 220 46	-21 25	r.
	6487		662	0.897	58 7	47 42	1	+ 9 52	S.
24.	6488	82.476	662	0.751	54 52	63 54	1	+ 9 48	S.
	6489	1	662	0.762	53 20	61 2	221 7	+ 9 20	M.
	6490	82-518	662	0.746	54 29	64 53	221 30	+10 5	m.
O=	6491		662	0.757	53 10	61 34	218 11	+ 9 28	M.
27.	6492	85.607	663	0.783	42 55	65 35	178 24	+10 2	m.
	6493	-	663	0.791	43 14	62 44	175 33	+19 57	A.
	6494		663	0.795	42 39	64 21	177 10	+20 2	В.
	6495		663	0.810	45 8	62 29	175 18	+16 50	C.
	6496		663	0.807	44 23	62 10	174 59	+17 46	D.
	6497		663	0.831	44 23	60 26	173 15	+17 52	a.
	6498		663	0.836	44 46	61 3	173 52	+18 57	b.
	6499	1 1	663	0.849	45 2	59 28	172 17	+19 33	c.
	6500	1	663	0.844	46 47	59 17	172 6	+19 26 +19 15	d.
	6501	85.624	663	0.780	42 6	66 8	178 42	+19 15 +20 3	e.
	6502		663	0.788	43 3	62 49	175 23	+19 53	A.
	6503		663	0.792	42 10	64 27	177 1	+17 0	В.
1	$6504 \\ 6505$	1	663	0.808	45 25	63 4	175 38	+17 44	C.
	6506	:	663	0.805	44 41	61 41	174 15	+18 5	D.
	6507	1	663	0.834	44 27	60 59	173 33	+19 6	a.
	6508		663	0.831	44 49	61 20	173 54	+19 30	b.
1	6509	1	663	0.844	45 34	59 26	172 0	+19 21	d.
28.	6510	00 100	663	0.839	46 13	59 16	171 50	+19 19	
201	6511	86-483	663	0.622	35 5	71 39	172 3	+19 16	e. M.
i	6512	1 1	663	0.643	37 36	76 53	177 17	+20 38	N.
i	6513		663	0.641	36 51	77 48	178 12	+18 43	o.
*	6514	1	663	0.657	35 14	77 12	177 36	+17 38	m.
	6515		663	0.666	36 31	76 30	176 54	+16 21	n.
1	6516		663	0.692	38 14	71 21	171 45	+18 8	0.
-	6517		663	0.688	35 59	71 33	171 57	+17 28	p.
i	6518	96.500	663	0.711	39 59	71 36	172 0	+19 7	
-	6519	86.588	663	0.619	35 48	72 58	171 52	+19 12	q. М.
	6520		663	0.639	37 0	78 36	177 30	+20 24	N.
į	6521	1	663	0.635	36 ₺	79 5	177 59	+18 40	o.
	6522	1	663	0.650	35 26	79 10	178 4	+17 39	m.
	6523	1	663	0.662	36 31	78 5	176 59	+16 22	n.
- 1	6524		663	0.690	38 9	73 8	172 2	+18 5	0.
1	6525	1		0.684	36 17	73 22	172 16	+17 29	p.
30.	6526	00.460		0.707	39 37	73 21	172 15	+19 0	q.
	6527	88-462		0.384	358 13	107 31	179 50	+20 56	A.
-	6528			0.389	3 21	106 56	179 15	+21 36	В.
	6529	1		0.382	1 7	103 11	175 30	+20 47	C.
- 1	6530	!		0.414	359 28	100 55	173 14	+19 58	D.
	6531	1		0.427	0 26	101 6	173 25	+18 22	a.
	6532			0.379	7 21	102 48	175 7	+18 5	b.
1	6533			0.395	5 5	99 47	172 6	+17 16	c.
1	~000	1	663	0.411	8 34	98 14	170 33	+17 7	· ·

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue,	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1865.					9 4	99 25	171 44	+16 32	e.
Mar. 30.	6534	88-462	663	0.452	12 42	99 25	171 38	+17 50	f.
	6535	1	663	0.457	14 25	107 32	179 37	+20 55	A.
l	6536	88-478	663	0.383	359 55 3 58	106 49	178 54	+20 59	В.
1	6537		663	0.388	1 15	103 47	175 52	+20 45	C.
1	6538		663	0.380 0.414	359 56	100 29	172 34	+19 50	D.
1	6539	1	663 663	0.425	1 49	102 0	174 5	+18 20	a.
1	6540	1 1	663	0.377	6 22	103 34	175 39	+18 10	b.
	6541		663	0.393	5 39	100 13	172 18	+17 24	c.
	6542		663	0.407	8 47	99 59	172 4	+17 15	d.
	6543 6544		663	0.450	12 48	98 44	170 49	$+17 0 \\ +18 4$	e. f.
	6545		663	0.455	14 57	99 27	171 32	+18 4 $+18$ 29	M.
31.	6546	89-479	663	0.375	325 14	119 44	177 37	+17 47	N.
0	6547	1	663	0.379	327 59	121 5	178 58 175 32	+16 8	o.
	6548		663	0.370	340 55	117 39	173 32	+20 43	P.
	6549		663	0.363	328 26	116 8	173 26	+21 42	m.
	6550		663	0.350	330 13 336 42	114 55	172 48	+16 5	n.
	6551	į.	663	0.351	339 16	113 46	171 39	+17 3	0.
	6552	1	663	0.361	346 39	113 43	171 36	+18 25	p.
	6553		663	0.346	325 56	119 27	177 11	+18 25	M.
	6554	89.490	663 663	0.382	328 46	121 13	178 57	+17 49	N.
	6555	1	663	0.374	341 28	117 32	175 16	+16 18	0.
	6556	1	663	0.365	328 56	116 29	174 13	+20 44	P.
	6557		663	0.354	330 13	115 44	173 28	+21 50	m.
	6558 6559	1	663	0.356	336 31	114 21	172 5	+16 0 +17 6	n.
	6560		663	0.362	339 11	113 18	171 2	1	0.
	6561		663	0.350	346 40	113 20	171 4	+18 40 +20 34	p. S.
Apr. 1.	6562	90-445	663	0.452	290 57	135 36	179 47	+18 43	T.
Apr	6563	30	663	0.449	294 37	132 56	177 7 176 27	+17 10	Ū.
	6564	1	663	0.399	292 22	132 16	176 27 177 14	+16 34	s.
	6565		663	0.424	301 34	133 3	173 36	+19 37	t.
	6566		663	0.430	299 51	127 39	171 50	+19 18	u.
	6567		663	0.387	305 34	127 45	171 56	+18 14	v.
	6568		663	0.381	268 26	161 31	177 17	+18 33	A.
3.		92.448	663	0.738	269 37	162 27	178 13	+18 5	aº.
	6570		663	0.692	267 2	159 58	175 44	+19 6	В.
	6571	00.450	663	0.741	269 20	161 52	177 21	+18 36	A.
	6572	92.469	663	0.745	269 20	162 40	178 9	+18 2	aº.
	6573 6574		663	0.695	267 56	160 13	175 42	+18 54	B.
4		93.524	cca	0.875	262 41	177 6	177 37	+18 26 $+17 54$	m
•	6576	3000	663	0.873	261 35	178 6	178 37	+1754 +1829	M
	6577	93.535	663	0.877	262 6	177 20	177 58	+17 52	m
	6578	30	663	0.876	261 57	178 8	178 46	+18 20	A
6		95.449	663	0.988	255 21	205 52	179 5	+17 55	a.
_	6580		663	0.991	254 15	206 18	179 31	+18 31	A
	6581	95.475	663	0.990	256 24	206 37	179 27	+1759	a.
	6582		663	0.993	254 15 281 42	152 1	96 54	+17 8	S.
٤				0.528	281 42 282 35	153 24	98 17	+18 34	s.
	6584		664	0.520	289 33	150 4	94 57	+20 15	t.
	6585		CC.	0.833	261 24	182 49	98 45	+19 11	S
10			664	0.835	261 5	182 7	98 3	+20 27	8.
	6587		665	0.961	46 29	58 44	334 40	+18 27	t.
1	6588		cc.	0.922	258 26	196 32	98 10	+19 37	Q

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No	Mean Ti of Sun picture	. Group i	C-t-	Angle of Position		Helio- graphical Longitude	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spo
1865.							-		
Apr. 11				0.875	44 17	73 24	335 2	+18 21	R.
	659			0.925	258 0	196 2	97 27	+19 45	
10	659		665	0.871	45 14	74 31	335 56	+18 55	
12				0.702	39 7	89 24	334 36	+19 0	M.
13				0.568	31 58	101 32	335 14	+18 9	A.
	6598		666	0.892	234 59	196 45	70 27	- 8 49	B.
20	6596		666	0.881	233 13	194 37	68 19	- 8 4	b.
20	6598			0.583	276 57	170 17	304 1	+16 45	A.
	6599		667 667	0.576	277 48	169 16	303 0	+16 44	B.
	6600		667	0.569	276 0	168 58	302 42	+17 24	a.
	6601	,	668	0.555	279 51	166 24	300 8	+18 0	b.
	6602		668	0.265	348 10	133 4	266 48	+14 13	C.
	6603		668	0.203	349 8 349 42	133 43	267 27	+14 1	D.
	6604	:	668	0.287	349 42 350 10	132 58	266 42	+15 41	c.
	6605	109.535	667		276 44	134 28 170 27	268 12	+16 11	d.
	6606	•	667	0.577	277 42		303 51	+16 40	A.
	6607	1	667	0.570	277 34	169 46 169 25	303 10	+16 42	В.
	6608	•	667	0.556	278 15	167 26	300 50	$\begin{array}{c} +17 & 28 \\ +17 & 55 \end{array}$	a.
	6609		668	0.265	348 8	133 48	267 12	+17 55	b. C.
	6610		668	0.267	349 6	134 6	267 30	+14 9	D.
	6611		668	0.279	349 16	133 17	266 41	+15 47	c.
2.	6612		668	0.288	350 47	135 25	268 49	+16 20	d.
21.	6613	110-467	667	0.728	269 57	182 11	302 22	+17 53	S.
	6614		667	0.710	271 55	184 21	304 32	+16 4	T.
	6615		667	0.712	269 23	182 47	302 58	+16 49	8.
	6616 6617		667	0.693	272 58	182 14	302 25	+16 0	t.
	6618	,	667	0.690	272 22	180 28	300 39	+17 54	u.
1	6619		668 668	0.284	299 20	144 59	265 10	+14 5	A.
	6620		668	0.295	301 15	146 38	266 49	+14 32	В.
	6621	· .	668	0.306	303 32	148 34	268 45	+14 18	a.
	6622		669	0.895	304 33 264 31	147 6	267 17	+1532	ь.
,	€623		669	0.883	266 28	198 9 196 22	318 20	+13 31	c.
	6624	110-489	667	0.731	269 9	182 37	316 33 302 30	+14 41	C.
į į	6625		667 -	0.714	271 29	184 42	302 30	+17.56 +16.6	S. T.
1	6626		667	0.716	269 55	182 8	302 1	+16 6 $+16 53$	s. 1
1	6627		667	0.697	272 42	182 9	302 2	+15 49	t.
	6628	i i	667	0.692	272 54	180 19	300 12	+17 55	u.
i	6629	1	668	0.285	299 16	145 27	265 20	+14 5	Α.
-	6630		668	0.297	301 42	146 34	266 27	+14 27	В.
1	6631		668	0.308	303 1	148 33	268 26	+14 17	a.
	6632 6633		668	0.311	304 48	147 41	267 34	+15 32	b.
- ;	6634		669	0.897	264 16	198 46	318 39	+13 39	C.
24.	6635	113-616	669	0.885	266 7	196 18	316 11	+14 40	c.
1	6636	110.010		0.992	258 7	227 48	303 19	+15 3	A.
25.	6637	114-496		0.687 0.517	41 3 35 36	104 42	180 13	+13 34	a.
	6638	230		0.533	37 31	118 14	179 44	+15 9	M.
	6639			0.548	38 31	115 12	178 14	+16 26	m.
26.	6640	115-495		0.392	21 27	128 47	- 7 - 7	+16 9 + 13 55	n.
İ	6641			0.385	19 20	132 53		+13 33	A.
-	6642			0.399	15 37	129 46		+16 50	B.
27.	6643			0.407	11 28	129 31		+17 36	b.
2/.	6644 6645	116.504			342 24			+14 56	8.
			670	9.275	341 6	142 33			

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1865.				0.001	339° 22	142 48	177 21	+16 23	c.
Apr. 27.	6646	116.504	670	0.281	137 46	138 54	173 27	- 8 9	A.
	6647		671	0.223	142 42	137 14	171 47	- s 29	В.
	6648		671	0.221	139 13	135 47	170 20	8 14	c.
	6649		671	0.240	143 27	136 28	171 1	- 7 59	D.
	6650	101.600	671 674	0.800	262 51	206 35	168 44	+12 17	d.
May 2.	6651	121.608	672	0.654	77 37	111 17	73 26	- 7 31	P.
	6652 6653		672	0.657	77 18	112 22	74 31	- 7 48	M.
	6654	1	672	0.663	79 16	110 17	72 26	- 8 2	m.
	6655		673	0.577	37 21	117 14	79 23	+14 8	S.
	6656	Ì	673	0.600	40 41	118 31	80 40	+15 0	s. T.
	6657		673	0.584	38 40	120 38	82 47	$+16 51 \\ +14 15$	t.
	6658		673	0.612	41 5	119 37	81 46	$+14 15 \\ -7 2$	Ä.
3.	6659	122-501	672	0.488	82 5	122 48	72 17	+17 19	В.
	6660		673	0.431	24 25	132 8	81 37	+15 59	C.
	6661		673	0.454	37 21	129 48	79 17 81 20	+16 42	b.
	6662		673	0.472	30 22	126 33	76 2	+16 35	c.
	6663	İ	673	0.438	29 15	124 31	74 0	+14 32	d.
	6664	1	673	0.487	38 35 175 36	153 11	73 47	- 8 12	M.
5.	6665	124.538	672	0.217		162 19	82 55	+13 29	P.
	6666		673	0.231	292 56	159 3	79 39	+13 18	Q.
	6667		673	0.240	311 57	158 1	78 37	+15 18	R.
	6668	i	673	0.307	309 55	160 41	81 17	+15 58	p.
	6669		673	0.343	314 37	156 43	77 19	+16 3	q.
	6670		675	0.887	71 57	93 44	14 20	- 4 50	r.
	6671	1	675	0.890	72 37	92 33	13 9	- 5 56	8.
	6673	1	675	0.892	73 0	89 0	10 0	- 5 46	t.
	6674		675	0.877	69 31	96 0	16 36	- 5 15	A. B.
	6675	1	676	0.981	71 18	83 7	3 43	+ 1 13	A.
6.		125.669		0.407	271 19	172 33	77 6	$+15\ 16$ $+16\ 33$	a.
1	6677	1 220 010	673	0.423	272 6	176 13	80 46	+16 33 -4 6	B.
	6678		675	0.658	66 10	110 30	15 3	- 5 56	l c
ļ	6679		675	0.693	68 17	106 25	10 58	-3 59	D
	6680		675	0.714	70 18	106 28	11 1	- 5 41	b.
	6681	1	675	0.701	71 42	110 18	14 51	- 5 8	c.
İ	6682	: !	675	0.688	73 43	109 16	15 48	- 3 17	i d.
İ	6683		675	0.669	72 43	112 18	16 51	- 5 35	e.
İ	6684		675	0.732	69 44 70 37	98 44	3 17	- 0 7	E
	6685		676	0.857		135 50	14 33	- 4 42	I N
} 8	6686			0.292		137 49	16 32	- 5 18	
1	6687		675	0.316	76 20	132 52	11 35	- 5 36	
1	6688		675	0.517	69 12	124 31	3 14	+ 0 43	
	6689		676	0.054	168 37	152 10	15 16	- 3 30	
	6690		675	0.089	159 23	150 55	14 1	- 5 15	
	669		675	0.112	154 24	148 37	11 43	- 5 17	
	669		676	0.293	77 24	140 35	3 41	- 0 24	- 1 :
	669		676	0.295	77 10	139 57	3 3	+ 0 20	. 1
	669		677	0.672	43 48	115 50	338 56	+17 16	
*	669		677	0.695	52 49	112 14	335 20	1	
	669		677	0.702	48 18	109 1	332 7	+15 56	
	669		677	0.708	54 7	108 54		- 2	- 1
1	2. 669	1 0	,	0.491	251 6	184 5		- 3 1	-
4	670	7	678	0.470	250 7	183 41		1.0	
	670		678	0-463	246 24	182 42	2 24		

Table III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Tir of Sun- picture.	Group in	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitud from Nod	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spo
1865.					-				
May 19			1 678	0.429	240 40	179 36	359 18	- 4 4	
	6703		678	0.444	242 39	181 16	0 58		aº.
	6704		678	0.476	242 40	178 39	358 21	- 4 0 - 6 40	В.
	6705		678	0.483	248 24	183 4	2 46		b.
	6706	1	678	0.487	249 39	183 14	2 56	- 5 47	C.
	6707	1	678	0.424	239 55	178 54	358 36	- 7 14	c.
	6708		679	0.273	281 56	170 14	349 56	- 8 53	c1.
	6709	1 00	679	0.259	283 48	169 19	349 1	+ 6 56	X.
13		132.660	678	0.663	244 52	198 35	3 58	+ 7 3	X.
	6711	:	678	0.612	239 45	196 15	1 38	- 5 45	A.
	6712	1	678	0.604	242 37	197 51	3 14	- 5 46	B.
	6713		678	0.657	240 20	198 3	3 26	- 5 56 - 6 3	C.
	6714	4	678	0.660	241 26	194 16	359 39	-612	D.
	6715	1	678	0.639	241 1	194 56	0 19		E.
	6716		678	0.623	240 53	195 22	0 45		a.
	6717	1	678	0.636	241 53	195 43	1 6	- 7 47 - 8 54	b.
	6718	i	678	0.598	239 26	193 59	359 22	- 8 34 - 8 35	c.
	6719	1	679	0.408	265 20	183 39	349 2	+533	d.
	6720	i	679	0.427	266 12	182 29	347 52	+ 5 26	F. G.
	6721		679	0.420	266 29	180 40	346 3	+ 6 22	
	6722	į.	679	0.419	265 1	179 22	344 45	+ 7 27	e. f.
18.	6723		, 679	0.431	267 18	181 2	346 25	+ 7 13	
18.	6724	137.528	680	0.864	269 5 0	229 28	325 49	+10 16	Λ .
	6725	1	680 .	0.831	267 57	227 48	324 9	+11 13	В.
	6726	1	680	0.822	268 17	227 10	323 31	+11 9	a.
	6727	ŧ	680	0.855	269 45	226 29	322 50	+10 9	h.
19.	6728	100.707	680	0.820	26 7 0	226 56	323 17	+ 8 19	c.
1 3.	6729 6730	138.505	680	0.942	266 28	240 2	322 31	+10 59	M.
	6731	;	680	0.937	265 48	242 0	324 29	+11 2	N.
	6732		680	0.051	265 17	241 38	324 7	+11 33	Ö.
	6733	1	681	0.628	260 34	202 52	285 21	+ 9 36	Ä.
	6734		681	0.612	261 49	201 10	283 39	+ 8 35	a.
	6735		681	0.579	260 9	199 34	282 3	+ 8 16	B.
22.	6736	141.503	681 - 681	0.562	261 52	197 53	280 23	+ 7 37	b.
	6737	141.000	681	0.960	255 12	242 6	282 3	+86	M.
23.	6738	142-655	1 081	0.991	256 20	240 46	280 43	+ 7 50	m.
24.	6739	143.513	No spot	visible.			1 1		
25.	6740	144.482	682	1	00		: 1		
İ	6741	1-11-102	683	0.982	80 56	87 35	85 17	- 9 59	P.
26.	6742	145-489	682	0.988	61 47	90 57	88 39	+16 24	Q.
1	6743	1	682	0.941	82 21	100 51	84 16	-10 59	Ρ.
ļ	6744			0.943	81 4	100 32	83 57	-10 54	p.
į	6745	i	- 1		83 25	102 29	85 54	-11 44	q.
1	6746		- 1	0.944	62 47 62 26	105 10	88 35	+ 9 51	Ŕ.
27.	6747	146-462	a i	0.942		103 47	87 12	+10 59	r.
	6748			0.848	81 9 i 82 17	118 57	88 34	- 9 54	A.
1	6749	,	- 1	0.859		115 54	85 31	-11 23	a.
- 1	6750			0.937	82 56 81 11	117 40	87 17	-10 13	В.
1	6751		- :	0.842		111 17	80 54	-11 8	b.
	6752	:		0.846	59 24 60 38	118 44	88 21	+10 13	C.
29.	6753	148-647	- 1	0.490	91 39	117 28	87 5	+ 9 35	c.
į	6754	!		0.497	90 51	144 55	83 32	10 3	M.
	6755			.523	90 4	148 28	87 5	-11 6	m.
and a	6756		- 1	-506	91 0	146 55	85 32	- 9 20	n.
!	6757			-519	91 18	144 32 145 52	83 9 84 29	-11 26	0.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.		No. ,	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1865.	-			Coo	0.533	93 30	147 16	85 47	-10 58	q. R.
May 29.		6758	148-647	682 683	0.333	54 53	150 59	89 36	+10 7	r.
•		6759		683	0.491	55 0	149 36	88 13	+ 8 19	s.
		6760		682	0.337	104 32	160 0	86 24		T.
30.		6761	149-510	682	0.347	101 37	160 46	87 10	$-11 \ 41$ $-10 \ 40$	s.
	1	6762		682	0.371	104 25	159 29	85 53	-11 38	t.
	l	6763	1	682	0.359	106 51	157 14	83 38	$-11 \ 46$	a.
		6764		682	0.388	104 27	157 30	83 54		В.
	1	6765	:	683	0.323	41 35	161 54	88 18 87 6		b.
	1	6766	1	683	0.330	41 10	160 42		+ 9 8	A.
	1	6767	150-683	682	0.192	169 59	174 22		-10 42	a.
31	•	6768	190.009	682	0.190	168 22	175 56	85 41	- 9 7	В.
		6769		682	0.206	169 7	173 20	83 5 82 36	_10 38	b.
		6770	1	682	0.213	167 53	172 51	1	+10 21	C.
		6771		683	0.187	347 5	178 25	88 10 87 11	+ 9 22	C.
	í	6772		683	0.192	346 9	177 26		- 5 14	M.
	1	6773		684	0.953	77 52	107 23		_ 3 16	m.
	i	6774		684	0.950	78 22	105 19	15 4 14 56	_ 4 8	P.
*		6775 6776	155-478	682	0.895	241 36	173 12	83 23	-10 40	p.
June 5	•		100 170	682	0.906	244 34	241 39	81 38	9 53	Q.
	,	6777 6778		682	0.904	, 242 25	239 54	85 6	_11 13	R.
		6779	1	682	0.917	246 32	243 22	86 58	_10 5	q.
		6780		682	0.922	244 19	245 14	85 21	-11 10	r.
	1	6781		682	0.924	247 49	243 37	18 34	-319	S.
	i	6782	1	684	0.109	139 49	176 50	15 23	_ 5 37	8.
	,	6783	1	684	0.129	131 8	173 39	14 10	- 4 34	t.
	1	6784		684	0.157	124 55	172 26	85 50	-10 51	A.
	5. i	6785	156-533	682	0.973	243 16	259 4	80 53	-11 35	a.
,		6786		682	0.974	245 21	254 7	295 43	+ 3 12	M.
	í	6787	1	686	0.980	68 47	108 57 114 1	300 47	+ 5 45	m.
	1	6788	1	686	0.978	68 13	114 1	297 31	+ 6 40	A.
	7.1	6789	157-619	1 - 0	0.907	, 69 46	130 22	301 44	+ 4 27	В.
	•• [6790	1	686	0.900	68 33	129 14	300 36	+ 3 41	a.
	;	6791	1	686	0.862	67 53	124 37	295 59	+ 5 57	b.
	į	6792	1	686	0.844	66 34	206 19	17 41	- 7 41	C.
	4	6793		687	0.444	253 41	207 21	18 43	- 7 14	c.
	- 1	6794		687	0.447	254 28	134 48	293 3	+ 6 14	
	8.	6795	158-543	686	0.705	68 36	141 3	299 18	+ 5 39	
		6796		686	0.771	69 57 70 53	137 36	295 51	+ 6 47	
,	ļ	6797	į	686	0.753	70 53 69 26	138 20	296 35	+ 5 20	
	ì	6798		686	0.722	70 51	135 49	294 4	+ 4 54	
	1	6799	1	686	0.794	72 32	141 34	299 49	+ 7 4	. i
1		6800		686	0.760	74 28	136 7	294 22	+ 8 36	
		6801	1	686	0.802	249 22		17 29	- 8 9	
		6802		687	0.625	67 51	149 5	294 9	+ 5 2	
	9.	6803			0.521	65 46		299 45	+ 6 1	. 1
	-	6804	:	686	0.536	66 15		293 18	+ 7 1	
		6805		686	0.628	67 30		298 56	+71	
		6806		686	0.579	: 65 32		005 40	+73	
		6807	1	686	0.637					3 I
		6808		687	0.801	/	- 1			3 N
	12.							1		7 n
		681		686		-00 0		300 37		
		681		686				3 299	, , ,	4 1
		681		686					2 4 + 6 2	2 0

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude,	Spe
1864.	_			-					
June 12	. 6814	162-515	686	0.000	- 9 .				
June 12	6815	102 313		0.223	330 51	191° 24	293 19	+ 6 46	p.
	6816		686	0.189	317 29	191 21,	293 16	+ 7 18	9.
	6817		686	0.242	295 11	190 40	292 35	+ 7 38	r.
2.0			688	0.167	154 25	184 59	286 54	- 5 29	S.
13		163-476	686	0.295	282 18	206 19	294 36	+ 5 21	A.
	6819		686	0.299	275 31	209 58	298 15	+ 6 4	a.
	6820		686	0.407	278 40	207 33	295 50	+ 7 37	B.
	6821		686	0.359	280 44	210 48	299 5	+ 7 10	b.
	6822		686	0.443	271 16	212 21	300 38	+ 7 33	1
14		164.519	686	0.612	269 19	220 51	294 20	+ 7 58	C.
	6824	1 1	686	0.599	267 36	225 31	299 0		M.
	6825	1	686	0.547	269 24	221 22	294 51	$+639 \\ +516$	A.
	6826	1	686	0.572	268 7	222 13	295 42		a.
	6827	1 1	686	0.511	269 44	227 45	301 14	+ 7 50	В.
16.		166-648		ts visible.		~~, 30	301 14	+ 7 18	b.
23.		173-513	689	0.968	95 49	124 44	70.90		
uly 3.	6830	183-515		ts visible.	30 13	127 44	70 39	- 4 52	M.
4.	6831	184.546	690	0.982	88 53	128 54	970.30		_
5.	6832	185-640	690	0.921	93 14	128 54 145 24	278 19	- 5 40	S.
7.	6833	187.521	690	0.643	97 14		279 18	-66	Sº.
•	6834		691	0.497	83 0	171 31	278 44	- 6 45	S1.
	6835	1	691	0.533		186 32	293 45	+ 3 8	A.
10.		190.512	690		78 16	185 5	292 18	+ 4 50	a.
• • • •	6837	130 012	691	0.137	168 1	214 29	279 17	- 5 55	M.
	6838	1		0.197	281 47	228 7	292 55	+ 3 16	A.
	6839	- 1	691	0.212	288 0	227 29	292 17	+ 4 38	a.
	6840	1 1	691	0.240	292 36	224 45	289 33	+ 6 45	В.
11.		101.644	692	0.792	101 17	165 28	230 16	- 7 16	b.
	6842	191-644	690	0.302	249 3	231 44	280 28	-68	Α.
12.	6843	200 001	692	0.576	104 12	180 29	229 13	- 6 24	a.
12.		192-694	690	0.498	263 58	245 58	279 49	- 5 0	M.
	6844	1	691	0.627	282 46	258 54	292 45	+ 4 40	A.
	6845	i ;	691	0.658	282 32	259 30	293 21	+ 5 38	a.
	6846		692	0.404	117 40	197 6	230 57	- 7 48	В.
14.		194.544	690	0.814	267 3	271 39	279 15	- 6 3	Α.
	6848		692	0.190	207 24	221 32	229 8	- 7 22	
15.	6849	195.569	692	0.357	246 10	237 34	230 38	- 7 48	a. B.
20.	6850	200.458	693	0.346	149 56	213 24	137 7	-16 24	м.
	6851	1	693	0.377	145 2	208 26	132 9	-17 23	N.
1	6852	1	693	0.406	142 30	207 35	131 18	-16 28	
	6853		693	0.419	139 59	205 56	129 39		m.\
26.	6854	206.522	694	0.430	85 29	201 42	39 24		n.
	6855		694	0 491	86 51	203 16	40 58	+ 5 44	s.
27.	6856	207.506	694	0.238	76 32	217 13		+ 5 27	S.
	6857		694	0.243	75 45	215 27		+ 4 25	Sº.
28.	6858	208-545	694	0.098	358 2			+ 5 30	s ⁰ .
	6859		694	0.132	0 4		41 39	+ 4 53	$_{A}.$
4	6860	'				229 23	38 23	+ 6 20	В.
	6861			0.119	~-	231 42	40 42	+ 5 34	a.
29.	6862	980.694		0.144	4 39	228 56	37 56	+ 7 30	b.
~5.	6863	209-624		0.386	291 57	246 53	40 25	+ 7 37	A.
1		* mass		0.395	296 59	247 52	41 34	+ 7 22	a.
1	6864	į		0.402	299 2	244 0 .	37 42	+ 8 36	aº.
- 1	6865	er can		0.238	71 43	220 23	14 5	+ 5 47	В.
1	6866			0.243	71 48	219 37	13 19	+ 5 7	b.
į	6867		695	0.280	72 3	217 32	11 14	+ 7 44	b°.
1	6868		696	0.283	106 57	216 32	10 14	- 3 58	C.
	6869)-349	97 3	212 11	5 53	- 1 18	·-

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1865.	2222	03.4 F3.C	cor		o=8 6	290 12	14 3í	+ 5 15	3.6
Aug. 3.	6870	214-516	695	0.779	279 9 279 23	289 24	13 43		M.
	6871		695 695	0.785	279 23 282 33	285 56	10 15		m. N.
	6872		695	0·799 0·802	280 29	287 18	11 37	$+634 \\ +46$	n.
	6873 6874		696	0.789	273 31	284 2	8 21	- 4 34	A.
İ	6875		696	0.749	272 19	286 22	10 41	- 3 26	B.
	6876	1	696	0.824	273 35	284 53	9 12	+ 0 3	b.
,	6877		697	0.766	290 57	304 38	28 57	+11 18	В.
-	6878	!	697	0.777	293 4	300 57	25 16	+11 47	c.
	6879	1	697	0.823	294 13	298 18	22 37	+14 29	D.
	6880	1	697	0.792	297 29	297 8	21 27	+15 30	E.
	6881	1	697	0.849	296 6	294 24	18 43	+13 51	b.
	6882		697	0.855	292 34	295 44	20 3	+14 20	c.
1	6883	1	697	0.861	291 22	295 59	20 18	+12 21	d.
1	6884		698	0.846	95 36	175 33	259 52	+ 5 17	F.
7.	6885	218 572	698	0.105	88 17	235 4	261 51	+ 5 25	M.
,	6886		698	0.147	85 46	230 47	257 34	+ 3 40	N.
	6887	1	698	0.129	87 54	231 29	258 16	+ 3 33	0.
	6888	!	698	0.187	83 25	234 37	261 24	+ 4 9	m.
1	6889	1	698	0.506	79 35	229 13	266 0	+ 6 7	n.
	6890	1	699	0.595	117 55 115 21	205 15 205 11	232 2	- 8 55 - 9 40	0.
i	6891	,	699	0.613		158 49	231 58 185 36		р.
	6892	!	700	0.990	90 57 91 27	156 13	183 0	, .	Q.
	6893	000.420	700 698	0.987	290 22	259 6	259 24		q. A.
9.	6894	220.439		0.358 0.347	290 22 294 43	261 11	261 29	$+330 \\ +317$. a.
,	6895 6896	!	698 699	0.282	146 19	231 28	231 46	- 9 51	В.
į	6897		700	0.820	92 35	185 20	185 38	+641	Ċ.
į	6898	1	700	0.867	91 6	186 30	186 58	+ 7 44	c.
10.	6899	221-606	699	0.223	205 32	248 31	232 16	- 9 46	A .
10.	6900	, 223 000	700	0.614	91 4	201 55	185 40	+ 5 22	В.
;	6901		700	0.682	92 7	203 27	187 12	+ 5 20	ti.
,	6902	!	700	0.679	91 5	202 1	185 46	+ 6 14	b".
12.	6903	223-429	700	0.288	85 23	229 37	187 30	+ 5 49	М.
12.	6904		700	0.319	83 55	227 13	185 6	+ 6 49	. N.
	6905		700	0.331	81 22	226 45	184 38	+ 7 50	m.
14.	6906	225.495	700	0.196	310 39	254 42	183 16	+ 7 28	Mº.
	6907		700	0.240	329 21	256 34	185 8	+ 6 30	Nº.
1	6908	:	701	0.972	115 26	170 49	99 23	-21 59	A.
16.	6909	227.490	701	0.815	123 52	196 30	96 47	-20 12	A°.
i	6910	1	701	0.851	121 41	197 32	97 49	-20 51	а.
17.	6911	228.485	701	0.640	129 11	212 54	99 4	-21 52	A.
1	6912	:	701	0.708	126 25	212 18	98 28	-21 35	a.
	6913	1	702	0.990	117 51	173 41	59 51	-19 15	В.
	6914	ļ	702	0.981	116 40	174 22	60 32	-22 33	b.
- 1	6915	1000 150	702	0.964	115 59	174 53	61 3	-21 7	C.
18.	6916	229-472	701	0.512	139 19	227 31	99 41	-21 31	A. a.
	6917	i	701	0.569	135 11 121 0	222 17 193 17	94 27 65 27	$-21 \ 31$ $-20 \ 53$	B.
	6918	i	702	0.870		189 14	61 24	-20 55	b.
	6919		702 702	0.902	119 53 117 25	186 2	58 12	-20 36	c.
21.	6920 6921	232-667	702	0.859	99 39	192 53	19 44	+ 4 5	D.
21.	6922	232-00/	703	0:876	94 28	190 33	17 24	+ 3 23	d.
	6922		703	0.870	96 7	193 13	20 4	+ 3 23	e.
	6924		703	0.891	95 10	191 9	18 0	+ 4 50	F.
1	6925	1	703	0.906	96 9	193 52	20 43	+ 4 56	f.

ON SOLAR PHYSICS.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spo
1865.				1		-		-	
Aug. 21.	6926	232-667	703	0.000		0 1			
22.		233-626	703	0.922	94 50	192 50	19 41	+ 3 38	0
~~~	6928	, ~00 020		0.704	98 38	208 4	21 19	+ 5 27	g. M.
	6929	i	703	0.772	98 11	199 58	13 13	+ 6 4	N.
	6930	i 1	703	0.763	97 39	201 0	14 15	+ 4 10	o.
			703	0.800	96 15	203 45	17 0	+ 7 43	P.
	6931		703	0.755	97 41	205 45	19 0	+ 6 40	
	6932		703	0.731	96 29	208 7	21 22	+ 8 15	m.
0.4	6933	227 22 -	703	0.813	96 22	207 4	20 19	+ 3 21	n.
24.	6934	235.612	703	0.367	91 31	230 16	15 21		0.
	6935	1	703	0.372	92 57	231 40	16 45		A.
	6936	1	703	0.411	97 53	235 9	20 14	+ 4 6	B.
	6937	1 1	703	0.395	95 36	236 31		+ 5 10	C.
	6938	-	703	0.452	95 28	229 10		+ 6 16	D.
	6039	1	703	0.463	96 31	228 19	14 15	+ 8 58	a.
	6940	, !	703	0.414	95 20	236 58	13 24	+ 7 30	b.
	6941	1	703	0.399	93 z0 97 6	230 38	22 3	+ 6 5	c.
	6942	1 !	703	0.435			17 25	+ 5 11	d.
	6943	i i	703		95 33	233 56	19 1	+ 4 10	e.
26.	6944	237.546	703	0.470	98 36	235 12	20 17	+ 3 35	f.
	6945	~~, 010	703	0.087	328 17	263 47	21 26	+ 4 27	M.
	6946	1		0.091	334 42	264 50	22 29	+ 3 2	N.
i	6947		100	0.088	355 56	258 56	16 35	+ 3 3	0.
-	6948	1 1	703	0.102	347 59	262 31	20 10	+ 4 15	P.
		1	703	0.154	359 26	256 59	14 38	+ 3 1	Q.
-	6949	1 .	703	0.133	13 4	257 7	14 46	+ 6 52	R.
i	6950	1 !	703	0.141	1 54	255 3	12 42	+ 5 27	m.
- 1	6951	1 ;	703	0.150	47 20	261 36	19 15	+ 4 40	
1	6952	,	703	0.160	50 40	259 57	17 36	+ 4 20	n.
	6953		703	0.123	26 19	256 35	14 14		0.
1	6954	ì	703	0.129	9 48	257 0	14 39	+ 5 51	р.
	6955	i .	703	0.162	55 23	255 33	13 12	+ 8 38	q.
29.	6956	240.426	703	0.707	299 47	297 55		+ 7 49	r.
- 1	6957	1	703	0.692	295 34	299 25	14 43	+ 4 0	S.
i	6958		703	0.695	294 2		16 13	+ 5 46	s.
1	6959	:	703	0 611		304 53	21 41	+ 6 15	т.
ļ	6960	1	703	0.649	293 13 293 4	303 44	20 32	+ 8 40	t.
;	6961	1 :	703			301 13	18 1	+ 5 47	U.
	6962		703 703	0.671	296 45	300 43	17 31	+ 5 32	Z.
	6963			0.602	293 55	297 47	14 35	+ 5 54	u.
1	6964	:	704	0.607	111 6	223 33	300 21	- 2 19	a.
,	6965		704	0.615	112 18	220 16	297 4	- 3 33	b.
30.	6966	041.463	704	0.660	109 37	221 46	298 34	- 3 29	c.
		241.462	703	0.865	298 11	314 31	16 37	+ 7 10	M.
i	6967			0.870	297 22	317 28	19 34	+ 3 35	
	6968	j		0.881	296 48	318 59	21 5	+ 5 49	m.
	6969	!		0.408	114 57	237 29	299 35	- 3 19	n.
	6970	,		0.424	110 27	237 58	300 4		A.
	6971 .			0.472	111 38	239 30	301 36		В.
i	6972			0.460	109 26	234 53			<b>C.</b>
	6973	į		0.491	109 32	234 33		- 2 5	a.
t. 1.	6974	243-476			297 15		295 24	- 4 18	b.
1	6975						18 19	+ 3 55	A.
1	6976				299 21	341 5	14 37	+ 6 23	a. ;
į	6977				125 31	263 33	297 5	- 1 57	В.
	6978		ter a c		184 26	266 23	299 55	- 2 33	C.
	6979				237 20	265 0	298 32	- 1 15	Ď.
	6980				146 10	264 47	298 19	- 3 5	b.
	6981			059	239 14	266 19	299 51	- 2 44	c.
	UMBI I	, ,	704 0	-097	269 25	268 9	301 41	- 3 48	

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1865.				0.910	28Î 2Ó	279 í	299 ó	- 2 50	Α.
Sept. 2.	6982	244.431	704	0.318	282 10	277 51	297 50	- 1 17	B.
- }	6983		704	0.307	285 19	279 9	299 8	- 3 39	C.
1	6984		704	0.270		276 29	296 28	+ 0 19	a.
4	6985		704	0.260		278 51	298 50	_ 1 16	b.
	6986		704	0.232	289 2		300 44	_ 3 43	M.
4.	6987	246.436	704	0.606	289 2	309 11	298 2	- 3 36	m.
1	6988		704	0.684	288 1	306 29			n.
1	6989		704	0.641	287 14	305 48		+ 1 35	1
	6990	i	704	0-690	287 17	307 56	299 29	- 3 32	o. S.
5.	6991	247-650	704	0.838	291 17	325 32	299 52		T.
	6992	1	704	0.870	291 41	326 50	301 10	- 1 35	1
į	6993	1	704	0.864	294 36 ·	324 17	298 37	* - 3 13	s.
1	6994		704	0.852	292 50	323 12	297 32	- 2 11	t.
1	6995	i	704	0.840	293 50	325 11	299 31	- 3 38	u.
4	6996	1	704	0.872	295 14	322 29	296 49	- 1 7	v.
6.		248-636	704	0.961	294 44	340 51	301 12	- 3 17	Z.
0.	6997	~ 40 000	704	0.940	295 11	339 43	300 4	+ 0 56	a.
1	6998		704	0.956	295 11	340 5	300 26	- 1 4	b.
į	6999		704	0.939	297 17	338 23	298 44	- 2 33	c.
	7000	late crc			294 20	353 17	299 9	- 3 7	M.
7.	7001	249-656	704	0.989	296 50	355 25	301 17	- 3 9	M
	7002		704	0.993	290 30	000 20			1
8.	7003	250.476	No snot	s visible.			1		1
9.	7004	251-444	j -			03.	74 43	-17 13	A.
13.	7005	255.454	705	0.962	125 9	211 5	76 59	-18 11	a.
	7006	1	705	0.973	127 4	213 21			Aº.
14.	7007	256-461	705	0.824	126 39	226 31	75 52		
	7008	1	705	0.833	124 16	223 23	72 44	-18 44	aº.
15.	7009	257-466	705	0.710	137 35	239 27	74 32	-19 36	a.
	7010	1	705	0.764	138 40	237 44	72 49	-18 17	ь.
16.	7011	258-448	705	0.622	148 31	249 49	70 59	-17 54	M.
10.	7012	200 110	705	0.631	147 42	254 41	75 51	-1746	N.
1	7012	1	705	0.688	146 37	251 52	73 2	-19 49	m.
1			705	0-699	146 51	253 11	74 21	-18 40	ti.
	7014	aCa. 219	705	0.311	211 2	283 39	75 32	-16 5	A.
18.	7015	260-513		0.363	199 31	279 34	71 27	-19 39	a.
1	7016		705			324 59	116 52	- 8 28	В.
1	7017	1	706	0.712		323 21	115 14	- 8 49	b.
	7018		706	0.708	274 1		112 10	- 7 37	b6.
-	7019		706	0.664	277 10	320 17	76 30	-16 12	Z.
19.	7020	261.518	705	0.320	251 26	298 53		- 8 4	a.
- 1	7021	1	706	0.850	277 41	337 45	1	-	b.
1	7022	1	706	0.860	277 58	336 24	114 1	- 7 59	1
į	7023		706	0.866	278 59	335 45	113 22	- 8 52	c.
1	7024	1	706	0.843	277 26	334 54	112 31	- 7 5	d.
1	7025	!	706	0.838	289 58	338 35	116 12	- 7 54	e.
20.	7026	262-474	705	0.522	259 11	310 23	74 26	16 26	M
20.	7027	~~~ *, *	706	0.902	277 36	350 49	114 52	- 7 7	A.
1	7027		706	0.940	277 59	352 21	116 24	- 8 49	a.
į		1	706	0.952	279 2	348 12	112 15	- 8 15	b.
1	7029		706	0.919	278 19	351 40	115 43	- 7 56	B.
-	7030	1			279 38	351 2	115 5	- 9 46	C.
	7031	001-00	706	0.948		210 19	305 38	+ 2 38	P.
22.	7032	264.500	707	0.970		1	304 54	- 1 43	Q
	7033	İ	707	0.975	109 0	209 35	302 56	+ 3 2	p.
	7034		707	0.976	107 17	207 37		- g 1	q.
	7035	1	707	0.983	111 9	211 35		1	A
23.	7036	265-442	707	0-901	107 19	222 29	304 27		B
	7037		707	0.912	108 5	219 44	301 42	- 2 49	1 0

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Tim of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue	Centre	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spo
1865.						-	-		
Sept. 23			707	0-914	111 22	223 13	305 11		1 ~
	7039		707	0 959	112 34	223 19		- 0 49	C.
	7040	1 -	707	0.966	112 11	224 1	306 17	-127 + 219	a.
25			707	0.569	108 57	252 54	305 26	+219 $-239$	b. P.
	7042		707	0.572	109 14	253 30	306 2	- 3 31	
	7043	i	707	0.644	114 52	254 37	307 9	+ 1 35	Q.
	7044	1	707	0.606	112 36	250 9	302 41	+ 0 27	p.
	7045	1	707	0.657	109 15	251 17	303 49	+ 0 4	q.
	7047	1	707	0.593	108 32	252 7	304 39	- 2 5	r.
26.		268-471	707	0.680	115 31	252 35	305 7	- 2 47	s.
20.	7049	208-4/1	707	0.397	104 20	267 31	306 39	- 2 39	M.
	7050	i	707	0.399	112 43	266 29	305 37	- 3 17	N.
	7051		707	0.450	110 0	265 42	304 50	+ 0 23	0.
	7052		707	0.441	106 54	261 28	300 36	+ 1 56	P.
	7053	1	707 707	0.472	114 18	268 10	307 18	+ 2 41	m.
	7054	1	707	0.480	115 14	262 47	301 55	+ 3 34	n.
	7055	1	707	0.490 0.457	115 31	266 20	305 28	- 3 50	0.
	7056		707	0.460		267 36	306 44	- 2 2	p.
	7057		707	0.427	108 18 113 9	268 18	307 26	+ 2 47	Q.
	-7058		707	0.406		266 29	305 37	+ 2 24	R.
	7059	! .	707	0.499	1	265 32	304 40	- 2 32	q.
27.	7060	269.536	707	0.136		267 15	306 23	+ 3 1	r.
	7061	,	707	0.159	91 35 104 37	284 20	308 13	+ 3 44	A.
			707	0.253	97 49	282 32 281 51	306 25	+ 2 20	В.
	7063		707	0.272	103 25	281 51 280 31	305 44	+ 2 12	c.
	7064		707	0.190	117 51	283 37	304 24	+ 2 18	a.
	7065	1 !	707	0.281	120 28	280 9	307 30 304 9	+ 1 39	b.
	7066		707	0.226	99 36	279 4	~	+ 1 59	c.
	7067	1	707	0.202	100 40	276 34	302 57 300 27		D.
,	7068	1	707	0.279	122 41	275 9	299 2	-116 $-155$	d.
i	7069	1	707	0.581	115 46	277 21	301 14	- 2 54	E.
	7070	1	707	0.288	122 48	275 49	299 42	- 2 35	f.
	7071		708	0.881	283 0	350 32	14 25	- 4 41	s.
	7072		708	0.890	283 50	351 39	15 32	- 5 57	T.
28.	7073		708	0.897	284 22	349 45	13 38	- 5 20	8.
28.	7074	270-490	707	0.043	268 36	291 13	301 34	+ 1 9	A.
	7075	1 1	707	0.057	194 39	290 24	300 45	- 0 53	a.
i	7076		707	0.069	165 9	289 29	299 50	+ 1 11	B.
1	7077		707	0.102	121 38	287 22	297 43	- 3 24	b.
í	7078	1	709	0.525	248 29	300 47	311 8	- 9 29	Ĉ.
1	7079 7080	1 1	709	0.254	250 43	301 33	311 54	-11 53	c.
30.	7081	970.410	710	0.961	104 37	219 37	229 58	+ 4 7	D.
	7082	272-419	707	0.468	298 39	315 25	298 25	- 1 46	a.
	7083	1 1	707	0.473	299 4	317 2	300 2	+ 0 18	b.
t. 2.	7084	274-451	711	0.431	284 48	317 15	300 15	- 4 56	х.
-	7085	777731	707	0.809 0.814	301 31	345 44	299 54	+ 1 10	a".
-	7086	l i	712	0.975	301 48	346 1	300 11	+ 1 59	b°.
3.	7087	275.469	707	0.910	108 30 303 37	220 58	175 8	- 0 31	Α.
1	7088	~.0 403	712	0.895		235 2	300 36	+ 1 11	a.
4.	7089	276-605	707	0.988	303 6	16 4	174 46	+ 0 47	В.
	7090		712	0.728	111 15		299 37 175 14	+ 1 27	в.
5.	7091	277-501	712	0.229	111 44	251 41 263 16		- 1 59	c.
								- 1 0	Α.
6. 7.	7092	278-478	712	0.405	110 47	278 32	175 35	- 0 42	

MDCCCLXX.

## TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No. ,	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1865.					130 5É	215 44	99 13	-18 12	В.
et. 7.	7094	279-434	713	0-994	140 52	259 53	100 3	-17 14	c.
10.	7095	282-488	713	0.715	135 30	257 22	97 32	-20 54	D.
	7096		713	0.728	138 11	256 0	96 10	-21 53	c.
	7097	1 1	713	0.751		258 16	98 26	-17 29	d.
1	7098	1	713	0.794	134 43 133 52	257 33	97 43	-18 15	e.
1	7099		713	0.813	151 47	277 32	102 54	- 20 43	M.
11.	7100	283-532	713	0.553		274 1	99 23	-19 59	N.
1	7101		713	0.594	149 54	271 55	97 17	-19 41	m.
1	7102		713	0.638	150 57	275 39	101 1	-18 7	n.
1	7103		713	0.559	145 51	271 32	96 54	-17 18	P.
	7104		713	0.641	147 49	270 28	95 50	-21 59	p.
	7105		713	0.662	149 45	268 29	93 51	-18 34	Q.
1	7106		713	0.581	147 6	274 23	99 45	-17 17	q.
1	7107		713	0.612	147 21	274 57	100 19	-17 8	q. S.
į	7108		713	0.633	145 46	275 7	100 29	-19 22	8.
1	7109	1	713	0.641	145 3	266 49	92 11	-20 19	T.
	7110		713	0.584	146 19	272 17	97 39	-21 54	t.
	7111		713	0.672	144 21	289 36	101 2	-18 6	A.
12.	7112	284-514	713	0.422	168 19	286 15	97 41	-19 9	В.
1	7113		713	0.471	165 42	284 7	95 33	-20 49	C.
1	7114		713	0.515	159 33	284 58	96 24	-21 19	D.
•	7115		713	0.450	161 55	289 49	101 15	-20 30	a.
	7116		713	0.462	156 56	287 23	98 49	-17 40	b.
	7117		713	0.491	158 44	287 25	98 51	-17 1	C.
1	7118		713	0.527	154 6	286 1	97 27	-18 48	d.
1	7119	1	714	0.841	123 6	287 6	98 32	-17 33	e.
	7120	1	714	0.860	122 58	305 38	102 55	-18 49	M.
13.	7121	285.512	713	0.338	199 37	304 23	101 40	-19 19	m.
	7122		713	0.342	196 25	301 1	98 18	-19 45	n.
	7123		713	0.354	193 6	300 38	97 55	-17 11	A.
	7124		713	0.388	190 3	301 32	98 49	-18 20	В.
	7125		713	0.372	187 44	300 58	98 15	-20 18	В.
	7126		713	0.391	181 55	297 10	94 27	-21 21	b.
	7127		713	0.436	185 35	299 2	96 19	-20 47	C.
	7128	1	713	0.414	186 53	1 100	95 58	-23 26	c.
	7129	1	713	0.444	178 29	296 41 265 38	62 55	- 7 10	D.
	7130	1	714	0.650	125 3	262 13	59 30	- 7 20	d.
	7131		714	0-691	125 58	0 23	99 11	-18 53	S.
17.	7132	289-635	713	0.805	275 44	358 17	97 5	-20 27	8.
	7133	1	713	0.832	273 50	2 8	100 56	-19 54	T.
	7134	1	713	0.827	275 57	359 44	98 32	-22 48	t.
	7135	1	713	0.848	272 6	326 17	65 5	- 6 2	v.
	7136	1	714	0.349	268 36	0.00	1		
24.	7137	296-459				1	1	1	
27.	7138	299-501		ots visible.	1	1			1
28.	7139	300-429		1			i		1
Nov. 2.	7140	305.535		0.000	106 15	246 3	105 49	-13 4	
3.		306-487		0.983	126 15	259 38	105 32	-12 9	A
4.		307-464		0.940	127 53	259 0	104 54	-13 7	a.
	7143		715	0.942	126 13	258 56	104 50	-12 46	b.
1	7144		715	0.962	126 53	317 23	104 34	-12 59	B
8		1 00	715	0.347	152 38	317 23	105 18	-13 59	
1	7146		715	0.354	154 59		116 14		
	7147		716	0.371	22 40	1	122 10	+34	, c.
1	7148	1	716	0.531	8 40	no= +C		+36	
1	7149		1 716	0.555	10 10	000 40	122 01	1	1

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot
1865.					. ,	2.4			1
Nov. 8.	7150	311-604	716	0-598	8 5Ó	337 27	114 36	+38 15	d.
10.	7151	313-455	715	0.353	235 51	345 8	106 3	-14 50	M.
	7152	1	715	0.360	240 8	344 46	105 41	-14 59	m.
	7153		717	0.544	100 8	303 9	64 4	+12 34	N.
	7154		717	0.557	99 22	301 59	62 54	+13 42	n.
13.	7155	316-503	715	0.831	274 42	26 32	104 13	-12 14	0.
	7156		718	0.946	117 53	265 23	343 4	- 4 49	S.
	7157		718	0.969	116 37	267 11	344 52	- 4 28	8.
15.	7158	318-448	715	0.979	277 24	55 32	105 38	-13 44	A.
	7159		718	0.665	121 47	298 38	348 44	- 5 13	C.
	7160	1	718	0.731	119 17	295 54	346 0	- 4 28	c.
	7161	1	718	0.701	120 30	294 26	344 32	- 4 11	e¹.
	7162		718	0.754	118 28	292 20	342 26	- 4 19	c2.
22.	7163	325-471	719	0.951	94 30	276 14	226 43	+12 49	A.
	7164		719	0-956	95 7	272 8	222 37	+13 17	a.
00	7165 7166	005.500	719	0-974	96 0	272 58	223 27	+13 43	b.
23.	7167	326-522	719	0.851	93 31	283 57	219 31	+12 54	a.
			719	0.867	94 0	287 23	222 57	+14 21	b.
	7168	1	719	0.895	93 25	288 49	224 23	+13 58	c.
	7169		719	0.902	95 20	290 3	225 37	+12 23	d.
24.	7170	327-479	719	0.705	88 25	304 1	226 1	+14 30	M.
	7171	1	719	0.711	89 54	299 0	221 0	+13 49	m.
	7172	1	719	0.784	91 45	302 47	224 47	+14 36	N.
	7173		719	0.796	92 31	297 34	219 34	+12 34	n.
Dec. 2.	7174	335.475	719	0.892	297 5	55 58	224 33	+13 9	В.
	7175	1	719	0.889	298 40	56 32	225 7	+14 47	b.
	7176	1	720	0.290	341 1	6 51	175 26	+15 7	S.
	7177 7178	0.00.00	721	0.869	119 48	297 29	106 4	-12 20	5.
13.		346-462	N7				1		1
14.	7179 7180	347-460 352-543	No spo	ts visible.			1		
19. 30.	7181	363-609	724*	0.704	110 10	340 38	110 0	_14 28	
30.	7182	303-009	724	0.752	112 12 111 54	338 21	110 9	_13 43	A. B.
-	7183		724	0-732		338 43	107 52	_14 9	1
1866.	7184		724	0.766	112 15	337 29	108 14 107 0	_15 21	a.
an. 1.	7185	0.462	724	0.366	129 6	8 26	111 40	_13 18	ь. М.
	7186	0.402	724	0.411	129 6	7 4	110 18	_13 53	m.
i	7187		724	0.394	127 54	5 37	108 51	_14 16	N.
1	7188	1	724	0.429	124 32	3 59	107 13	_13 56	n.
1	7189		725	0.305	103 42	9 29	112 43	_ 4 54	P.
1	7190	! ]	725	0.309	102 29	9 15	112 29	_ 4 27	Q.
	7191	; ]	725	0.398	102 52	3 7	106 21	_ 3 17	p.
	7192	1	725	0.406	99 1	4 58	108 12	_ 3 49	q.
3.	7193	2.450	724	0.288	216 33	30 22	105 24	_13 34	À.
	7194	~ 100	724	0.294	213 56	32 18	107 20	-14 23	2.
1	7195		724	0.305	209 33	33 28	108 30	-13 24	al.
1	7196		725	0.184	245 29	37 14	112 16	- 4 55	В.
-	7197	1	725	0-172	234 46	36 0	111 2	- 3 3	C.
	7198		725	0.169	240 52	31 37	106 39	_ 3 24	b.
	7199		725	0.151	228 49	32 49	107 51	_ 2 44	c.
	7200	1	726	0.973	77 25	315 42	30 44	+12 51	D.
4.	7201	3.534	724	0.455	238 24	46 41	106 21	-13 48	A.
	7202	0 004	724	0.460	239 15	48 33	108 13	-14 15	
i	7203		725	0.402	260 25	53 16	112 56	_ 4 21	a. P
1	7204		725	0.409	262 24	58 0	107 40	- 3 11	В.
1	7205		725	0.336	259 38	59 0	108 40	- 3 33	c.
1	. 200		120	0 000	200 00	09 0	100 10	- 3 03	d.

^{*} Groups 722 and 723 were visible on the 20th December, but the limb of the Sun-picture was so ill-defined that the determination of their heliographic position was rendered impossible.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.		No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre,	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1866.	_						331 ý	30 49	+13 39	ь.
	1.	7206	3.534	726	0.894	75 7			-13 27	М.
7	7.	7207	6.583	724	0.9:7	251 8	90 56		-14 14	m.
	i	7208		724	0.911	252 23	92 7		- 3 19	N.
		7209	1	725	0.913	263 33	92 59		1	Ö.
		7210		726	0.404	51 19	12 46	29 11	+1229 $-1333$	s.
8	3.	7211	7.501	724	0.972	251 31	103 18	106 41 108 53	-13 33	T.
	i	7212		724	0-976	251 50	105 30		- 3 47	
	1	7213		725	0.970	262 27	107 13	110 36		t.
	- 1	7214	1	726	0.274	26 39	25 51	29 14		Ä.
		7215		727	0.985	78 53	313 54	317 17		M.
9		7216	8.459	727	0-948	76 38	325 41	315 29		
	1	7217	1	727	0.942	77 57	326 56	316 44		10.
	Ţ	7218		727	0.959	77 ≉	322 39	312 27		n.
	- 1	7219	1	727	0.963	79 7	324 0	313 48		o. M.
13	5.	7220	14.504	727	0.351	300 38	54 26	318 29	+15 18	
	í	7221	1	727	0.340	301 52	52 9	316 12	+14 19	m.
		7222	1	727	0.333	302 13	51 29	315 32	+13 41	n.
		7223		727	0.327	303 20	52 35	316 38	+14 21	0.
		7224	1	727	0.318	301 14	51 17	315 20	+14 49	a.
	- 1	7225	1	727	0.310		49 15	313 18	+13 33	b.
	1	7226		727	0.270		49 39	313 42	+13 2	c.
	i	7227	1	727	0.246	309 16	48 39	312 42	+12 37	d.
	:	7228		728	0.948	90 25	332 17	236 20	- 6 5	D.
	į	7229	§	728	0.950	91 40	330 29	234 32	- 5 28	E.
	- 1	7230		728	0.980	92 39	335 29	239 32	- 6 21	f.
	1	7231	1	728	0.972	91 13	332 21	236 24	- 5 58	g.
	4	7232	1	728	0.987	93 27	333 39	237 42	- 6 9	b.
19	).;	7233	18.496	727	0.954	271 52	109 9	316 35	+12 42	٦.
	1	7234		727	0.958	273 41	105 37	313 3	+14 27	8.
	Ì	7235	i	728	0.274	94 4	30 16	237 42	- 6 55	, M.
	- !	7236		728	0.282	92 54	29 27	236 53	- 6 22	m.
	1	7237	1	728	0.295	91 50	29 41	237 7	- 5 24	n.
	- 1	7238	1	728	0.311	90 59	28 17	235 43	- 6 11	υ.
	ì	7239	1	728	0.324	91 50	27 18	234 44	- 6 54	11.
	1	7240	1	728	0.380	90 20	22 59	230 25	- 5 22	q.
	1	7241	i	729	0.444	94 15	20 15	227 41	- 9 4	S.
	i	7242	1	729	0.461	92 41	19 10	226 36	- 8 27	н.
	1	7243	1	729	0.455	93 20	19 1	226 27	- 9 48	T.
	- 1	7244	1	729	0.453	93 16	17 4	224 30	- 8 15	t.
		7245		729	0.469	91 22	16 57	224 23	- 7 56	v.
9.	3.	7246	22.510	728	0.620	252 8	87 4	237 34	- 6 33	M.
~	-	7247	22010	728	0.611	251 34	82 58	233 28	- 6 16	m.
	- 1	7248		729	0-446	250 17	74 52	225 22	- 8 59	N.
9	4.	7249	23-494	728	0.783	251 36	100 8	236 40	_ 5 36	В.
~		7250	20 131	728	0.768	250 15	94 8	230 40	_ 6 15	b.
a	9.	7251	28.502	730	0.508	51 13	25 21	90 51	+14 51	S.
~	3.	7252	25002	730	0.564	54 7	23 16	88 46	+13 19	8.
	-	7253	1	730	0.572	54 11	21 8	86 38	+13 7	1.
	į	7254		731	0.802	86 19	1 11	66 41	- 6 27	a.
	Ì		i	731	0.807	87 58	1 16	66 46	- 7 39	b.
		7255		731	0.839	89 15	358 2	63 32	- 7 39	c.
		7256	1	731	0.848	89 30	358 37	64 7	- 8 15	d.
Esh	=	7257	95.505		0.612	237 19	99 13	65 23	- 7 59	A
Feb.	5.	7258	35.505			237 19	98 24	64 34	- 7 54	a.
		7259 7260		731 731	0.600	239 29	96 28	62 38	- 6 45	31

# ON SOLAR PHYSICS.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1866.		7			9 /				
Feb. 5.	7262	35.505	732	0.946	65° 19	356 46	322 56	+13 15	b.
	7263		732	0.938	65 25	356 56	323 6	+13 43	b1.
6.	7264	36.478	731	0.788	243 16	112 3	64 26	- 7 42	C.
	7265	(	732	0.937	59 6	11 33	323 56	+13 11	D.
	7266		732	0.932	59 41	12 4	324 27	+14 14	d.
8.	7267	38-485	731	0.976	243 12	141 26	65 20	- 6 54	S.
	7268		739	0.465	41 29	38 40	322 34	+14 17	a.
	7269	Į.	732	0.471	42 7	38 21	322 15	+14 13	b.
	7270	i	732	0.483	43 2	37 10	321 4	+13 22	c.
	7271	10.100	732	0.540	45 56	32 50	316 44	+13 23	d.
10.	7272	40-480	732	0.277	338 10	67 16	322 52	+14 12	В.
	7273	1	732	0.279	341 23	68 27	324 3	+14 13	b.
	7274	!	732	0.297	335 42	69 49	325 25	+16 10	b¹.
	7275		733	0.743	271 9	114 37	10 13	+14 7	C.
	7277		733 733	0.708	274 6 275 8	113 33	9 9	+15 57	c.
	7278	ì	734	0.995	61 17	348 24	8 13	+16 10	c¹.
13.	7279	43.494	732	0.690	271 8	110 38	244 0 323 29	+20 26 +13 46	D.
10.	7280	, 40 494	732	0.694	271 52	111 38	204 00		
	7281		734	0.699	49 0	31 38	324 29 244 29	$+14 28 \\ +19 57$	a. B.
	7282		735	0.892	56 36	7 39	220 30	+19.57 +15.31	c.
	7283		735	0.916	57 18	358 36	211 27	+18 32	D.
	7284		735	0.917	59 14	2 42	215 33	+19 40	E.
	7285		735	0.955	58 21	0 44	213 35	+1659	е.
	7281		735	0.961	58 42	3 55	216 46	+16 16	d.
	7287		735	0.963	60 21	5 39	218 30	+17 8	e.
18.	7288	48-423	734	0.512	84 40	101 56	244 52	+19 19	M.
	7289	10 120	735	0.310	311 43	80 23	222 19	+16 13	A.
	7290		735	0.315	317 30	79 48	222 44	+14 5	В.
	7291		735	0.320	334 45	75 44	218 40	+14 23	č.
	7292		735	0.321	346 48	76 16	219 12	+13 50	Ď.
	7293	į	735	0.323	355 47	70 24	213 20	+13 2	E.
	7294		735	0.302	319 11	71 13	214 9	+15 22	a
	7295	:	735	0.299	351 46	72 49	215 45	+16 34	b.
	7296	1	735	0.272	346 17	72 16	215 12	+18 8	c.
	7297		735	0.281	345 52	69 13	212 9	+19 56	d.
	7298		735	0.283	358 13	68 58	211 54	+18 13	е.
	7299	, ;	735	0.560	358 46	68 6	211 2	+1718	f.
19.	7300	49.537	734	0.694	272 50	118 3	245 11	+1914	D.
	7301	i 1	735	0.456	283 44	95 41	222 49	+14 26	S.
	7302	: 1	735	0.432	291 12	91 52	219 0	+15 40	T.
	7303	1	735	0.410	295 40	91 3	218 11	+166	U.
	7304	. 1	735	0.419	315 33	90 21	217 29	+18 52	N.
	7305	;	735	0.371	312 34	85 27	212 35	+19 28	t.
	7306	. 1	735	0.384	317 4	84 30	211 38	+1943	u.
	7307		735	0.349	288 23	86 17	213 25	+14 12	v.
	7308		735	0.361	292 17	86 49	213 57	+15 55	М.
	7309	· j	735	0.359	317 21	87 4	214 12	+15 18	m.
	7310		735	0.344	314 37	88 11	215 19	+16 17	N.
-	7311	: [	735	0.390	316 5	84 53	212 1	+16 16	n.
an.	7312	1	735	0.345	318 45	84 37	211 45	+16 50	Q.
20.	7313	50-591	734	0.853	266 3	132 31	244 42	+20 44	$\mathbf{D}^{\circ}$ .
- 1	7314		735	0.648	273 6	110 20	222 31	+15 32	s.
1	7315	! !	735	0.650	281 28	104 48	216 59	+16 48	S.
	7316		735	0.539	277 31	102 56	215 7	+16 12	Т.
i	7317	: !	735	0.591	275 22	105 31	217 42	+17.56	t.

## TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spöt.
1866.					2 /		1 /	. ,	
Feb. 20.	7318	50-591	735	0.588	275 39	98 51	211 2	+16 46	a.
į	7319		735	0.550	279 38	99 56	212 7	+15 38	b.
I	7320		735	0.540	280 10	100 3	212 14	+14 36	c.
	7321	1	735	0-609	278 31	101 1	213 12	+14 37	d.
	7322		735	0-601	278 41	104 42	216 53	+13 24	e.
1	7323		735	0.528	282 55	106 1	218 12	+14 1	f.
ł	7324		735	0-466	283 53	99 8	211 19	+13 28	M.
1	7325		735	0.471	284 33	101 58	214 9	+14 17	nı.
	7326		735	0.510	284 37	107 33	219 44	+14 27	N.
	7327		735	0.519	285 0	108 57	221 8	+15 20	n.
21.	7328	51.541	734	0.946	263 33	147 2	245 45	+19 0	A.
	7329		735	0.800	266 18	124 14	222 57	+18 59	В.
ļ	7330		735	0.790	268 9	120 13	218 56	+13 31	C.
}	7331		735	0.672	272 12	120 54	219 37	+14 14	D.
į	7332		735	0.755	270 40	124 48	223 31	+1519	b.
1	7333		735	0.709	274 44	113 28	212 11	+15 55	c.
1	7334		735	0.684	269 5	116 53	215 36	+14 8	d.
1	7335		735	0.645	275 13	117 48	216 31	+13 57	e.
23.	7336	53.632	735	0.971	258 3	153 23	222 26	+15 32	M.
1	7337	1 1	735	0.951	261 34	150 9	219 12	+18 24	111.
	7338	1	735	0.917	259 7	149 19	218 22	+1754	N.
1	7339	1	735	0.936	260 10	150 46	219 49	+16 16	n.
ł	7340		735	0.944	260 48	151 50	220 53	+14 28	O.
	7341		735	0.909	263 2	144 20	213 23	+14 48	P.
24.	7342	54.486	735	0.977	257 46	159 53	216 49	+17 44	Aª.
	7343		735	0.980	259 32	162 21	219 17	+14 3	ai.
26.	7344	56.482	736	0.608	74 28	48 24	77 1	_ 5 14	S.
	7345	1	736	0.623	74 10	44 38	73 15	_ 4 38	s.
	7346		736	0.647	72 16	43 5	71 42	_ 5 58	t.
Mar. 2.	7347	60-471	737	0.747	44 56	41 14	13 16	+1655	B.
	7348	1	737	0.751	45 12	40 56	12 58	+16 13	b.
6.	7349	64-650	738	0.692	44 59	52 41	325 27	+19 48	M.
7.	7350	65.458	738	0.556	36 27	62 58	324 16	+18 17	Mº.
8.	7351	66.497	738	0.398	21 11	77 27	324 1	+19 3	M¹.
12.	7352	70-479	738	0.636	269 41	135 26	325 31	+19 26	A.
	7353	10 213	739	0.892	48 3	38 24	228 29	+15 38	a.
1	7354	!	739	0.895	49 21	39 47	229 52	+15 55	b.
I	7355		739	0.901	51 33	36 8	226 13	+14 13	c.
14.	7356	72-413	738	0.903	258 43	162 48	325 27	+19 36	Aº.
	7357	1 ~ 310	739	0.577	37 24	66 31	229 10	+16 51	al.
1	7358		739	0.579	38 43	65 26	228 5	+15 44	b1.
	7359		739	0.619	40 45	63 45	226 24	+14 18	c¹.
22.	7360	80-497	739	0.570	276 44	177 42	225 41	+14 18	M.
~~	7361	00 731	740	0.788	44 22	65 20	113 19	+16 57	a.
i i	7362		740	0.793	45 16	63 1	111 0	+15 54	b.
į	7363		740	0.809	46 9	63 28	111 27	+17 43	c.
23.	7364	81.502	739	0.705	269 13	192 56	226 40	+17 40	N.
20.	7365	01 002	740	0.556	33 6	81 32	115 16		A.
1	7366	!	740	0.580	38 38	79 1	112 45		A.
Ì	7367		740	0.612	36 55	82 48	116 32		B.
i	7368		740	0.564	30 33	81 8			b.
1	7369	1 .	740		39 35	78 0	114 52	1 -0	1
24.	7379	82-443		0.620	261 2	206 7	111 44		c. D.
24.	7371	52-443	739	0.841		207 3	226 31		d.
l	7372	i	739	0.843		1	227 27	1	E.
	7373		740	0.396	23 37		115 7	1	
1	1010	1	740	0.408	24 20	91 50	112 14	+1743	e.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No	Mean Ti of Sun- picture	Group i	n from	Angle of				
1866.		<del></del>	-	-					
Mar. 24	737	4 82-44	740	0.421	22 53				
	737		740	0.483				+16 8	A'
	737	6	740	0.459	27 20 24 12	03 03		+15 12	B ₁
	737		740	0.510	29 32	, ,,,	111 5	+17 59	al.
	737	8	741	0.558	69 23	J~ ~,	112 51	+15 15	,
	737		741	0.571	70 49	, , ,	95 29	- 3 34	C.
27	738	85.534	740	0.493	277 49	77 0 139 52	97 24	- 2 7	c.
	738	1	740	0.495	279 32	137 25	116 24	+15 50	A.
	7389		740	0.498	280 4	137 8	113 57	+15 39	B.
	7383		740	0.456	287 24	134 2	110 34	+16 48	C.
	7384	- ,	740	0.459	287 23	134 56	111 28	+1752 +1719	a.
	7388		740	0.461	289 18	133 1	109 33	$+17 19 \\ +18 32$	b.
	7386		741	0.187	241 11	121 23	97 55	- 2 19	D.
	7387		741	0.136	212 22	117 52	94 24	- 3 59	d.
	7388		741	0.129	213 0	116 40	93 12	- 3 15	E.
29.	7390		741	0.092	169 44	112 17	88 49	- 2 17	e.
	7391	04 418	741	0.812	259 0	144 47	94 36	- 3 23	M.
	7392		741	0.807	260 34	140 45	90 34	- 3 13	m.
	7393	ĺ	741	0.792	260 33	139 46	89 35	- 2 55	N.
30.	7394	88.476	741	0.919	264 7 256 13	143 47	93 36	- 3 59	n.
pr. 3.	7395	92.498	742	0.609	39 2	157 25	92 14	- 3 49	Mº.
	7396		742	0.615	39 34	87 27 86 45	325 12	+15 17	A.
_	7397		742	0.626	40 29	86 42	324 30 324 27	+14 45	a.
5.	7398	94.499	742	0.287	1 48	115 48	325 11	+14 51 +15 52	a1.
	7399		742	0.292	1 31	116 0	325 23	+14 39	B.
	7400		742	0.301	0 39	114 17	323 40	+15 55	C.
6.	7401 7402	05.000	742	0.305	358 29	114 53	324 16	+16 5	c.
•	7402	95.476	742	0.285	316 10	129 54	325 25	+15 23	x.
i	7404		743 743	0.635	25 6	91 17	286 48	+26 38	M.
į	7405	1 1	743	0.650 0.661	27 3	90 44	286 15	+28 13	m.
12.	7406	101-487	744	0.410	27 40 62 30	88 17	283 48	+29 48	n.
ì	7407	1	744	0.413	62 52	97 12	207 27	- 3 47	S.
1	7408		744	0.488	64 30	99 8	209 23	- 2 39	T.
į	7409	1	744	0.491	64 54	98 32 97 54	208 47 208 9	- 3 33	8.
1	7410		745	0.910	43 43	65 48		- 3 46	t.
14	7411		745	0.915	44 19	68 19	176 3 178 34	+1841 + 1819	K.
14.	7412	103-437	744	0.099	93 16	126 22	208 58	-241	k. A.
	7413	1 1	744	0.084	78 32	125 49	208 25	- 3 18	al.
-	7414 7415	1 1	745	0.661	36 5	95 10	177 46	+19 56	S.
e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e	7415	1	745	0.670	37 38	93 41	176 17	+18 18	s.
16.	7417	105.640	745	0.675	37 9	93 24	176 0	+18 53	t.
	7418	105-649	745 745	0.392	358 48	126 57	178 10	+19 50	A.
1	7419		745	0.405	0 46   359 12	125 53	177 6	+19 8	В.
1	7420		745	0.427	359 12	126 40	177 53	+21 11	a.
18.	7421	107-451	745	0.417	294 11	125 18 150 59	176 31	+20 6	b.
	7422		745	0.422	296 19	150 59	176 39	+19 2	C
10	7423			0-431	299 29	152 58	177 22 178 38	+20 10	c.
19.	7424	108-541		0.556	278 24	167 23	177 35	+19 56   +18 7	D.
	7425			0.577	282 26	169 7	179 19	+19 23	S.
	7426	-		0.582	279 28	166 5	176 17	+19 50	T.
	7427 7428				281 34	167 59	178 11	+18 28	t.
	7428	109-463			283 27	165 46	175 58	+20 39	m.
		103.402	745	0.715	268 52	179 38	176 45	+19 7	A.

## TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	the Kew	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude,	Spot.
1		parat.	Catalogue.	Oracio.			Dongreatte.	230000000	
1866.									
Apr. 20.	7430	109-463	745	0.726	270 45	180 37	177 44	+18 52	a.
· •	7431		745	0.733	269 39	181 5	178 12	+19 51	b.
21.	7432	110.468	745	0.866	264 12	195 3	177 55	+18 17	M.
	7433		745	0.871	266 56	193 51	176 43	+20 20	m.
23.	7434	112.434	746 746	0.714	51 16 53 5	96 27 95 55	51 26	$+10 \ 15 \\ + 8 \ 3$	A. B.
·	7435		746	0·729 0·751	53 29	95 55 93 14	50 54 48 13	$+83 \\ +959$	a.
-	7436 7437		746	0.765	53 30	92 40	47 39.	+10 5	b.
24.	7438	113-460	746	0.506	49 38	109 9	49 35	+10 19	M.
	7439		746	0.554	50 37	106 46	47 12	+ 9 43	m.
į	7440		746	0.560	52 32	109 59	50 25	+ 9 32	n.
- 1	7441		746	0.519	51 28	110 50	51 16	+86	P.
i	7442		746	0.537	51 41	110 48	51 14	+10 16	p.
95	7443	114.400	746	0.561	52 14	107 43	48 9	$+10 29 \\ +8 34$	p ⁰ .
25.	7444	114.482	746 746	0·300 0·317	37 22 39 41	125 31 124 25	51 27 50 21	+ 8 34 + 9 20	Α.
	7445 7446		746	0.333	·8 18	123 10	49 6	+ 9 43	a. b.
	7447		746	0.336	39 13	124 48	50 44	+ 9 4	В.
1	7448		746	0.387	40 55	120 31	46 27	+10 48	b.
26.	7449	115-466	746	0 146	341 0	140 53	52 50	+10 42	S.
į	7450		746	0.179	346 26	139 57	51 54	+10 29	8.
1	7451		746	0.161	355 9	138 29	50 26	+11 0	T.
i	7452	1 1	746	0.155	350 58	138 58	50 55	+11 32 + 8 21	t.
	7453	116 450	746 746	0.184	357 47 284 8	136 48 158 36	48 45 56 13		v. A.
27.	7454	116-478	746	0.192	284 8 281 1	159 23	56 13 57 0	$+918 \\ +1055$	a.
	7455 7456	i (	746	0.294	279 3	152 37	50 14	+11 45	а. , . b.
1	7457	:	746	0.271	273 25	155 14	52 51	+ 0 32	c.
1	7458	1	746	0.305	275 39	158 29	56 6	+10 26	В
1	7459	1	746	0.250	281 23	151 8	48 45	+99	C.
!	7460		746	0.246	277 46	150 24	48 1	+930	е.
	7461	,	746	0.317	272 20	150 47	48 24	+ 8 57	f.
30.	7462	119-449	746	0.814	254 4	195 21	50 50	+10 12	G.
May 2.	7463	121-660	i 1	1					
3.	7464 7465	122-504	No spor	ts visible.					
5.	7466	124-441	The specific	to vieloit.					
7.	7467	126-487	) 1					i	
8.	7468	127-443	748	0.492	67 49	126 28	228 33	+ 3 57	A.
	7469		748	0.507	69 57	125 9	227 14	+ 3 9	a
9.	7470	128-504	748	0.263	69 41	142 52	229 54	+ 3 20	$A^{0}$ .
	7471		748	0.299	68 33	141 39	228 41	+ 4 6 + 4 36	a°.
	7472		748	0.301	69 34	139 4	226 6		B. :
	7473		749	0·466 0·528	74 0 73 14	129 9 126 8	216 11 213 10	+ 1 21 + 2 37	b.
	7474 7475		749 749	0.534	73 14	120 8	213 10	+ 2 57	c.
10.	7475	129-458	748	0.008	41 10	154 46	228 16	+ 3 11	A.
10.	7477	. 23 100	748	0.052	56 10	151 4	224 34	+ 2 40	a.
	7478		749	0.156	84 50	143 8	216 38	_ 1 12	B.
	7479		749	0.174	80 40	140 58	214 28	_ 2 44	Ç.
	7480		749	0.254	79 8	138 18	211 48	_ 2 16	D.
	7481		749	0.226	77 36	141 35	215 5	+030 $+153$	b.
	7482	1	749	0.279	79 38	137 31	211 1	1	c. d.
	7483	190.204	749	0.298	72 57 179 37	136 55 158 47	210 25 217 10	+ 2 0	A.
11.	7484 7485	130-524	749 749	0·079 0·092	180 25	154 4	217 10	_ 1 17	B.
1	1 40.)	1	173	3000	100 20	101 1	~~~ ~/		

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre,	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot
1866.			*						1
May 11.	7486	130-524	749	0.155	136 49	157 38	216 í	+ 1 54	C.
	7487		749	0-110	97 16	154 35	212 58	- 2 17	a.
	7488		749	0.129	155 10	152 30	210 53	-24	b.
	7489		749	0.164	95 29	151 28	209 51	- 2 58	c.
	7490		749	0.175	126 48	150 40	209 3	- 4 50	S.
12.	7491 7492	191.470	749	0.172	92 39	150 32	208 55	- 3 1	5.
12.	7493	131-470	749	0.305	231 55	174 18	219 16	- 3 55	M.
	7494	i	749 749	0.287 0.195	223 24	171 23	216 21	- 2 34	N.
	7495		749	0.193	218 50 226 3	169 11 173 22	214 9	- 2 15	0.
1	7496		749	0.257	209 48	169 54	218 20 214 52	$+ 0 42 \\ - 2 13$	P.
1	7497		749	0.176	210 8	168 30	213 28	-213 -39	m.
	7498		749	0.150	230 53	167 34	212 32	-310	n.
	7499	1	749	0.211	225 53	170 50	215 48	- 3 51	0.
	7500		749	0.146	209 39	166 29	211 27	- 4 44	p.
15.	7501	134.602	749	0.873	244 27	213 32	214 4	- 3 8	g. S.
	7502		749	0.870	243 44	215 56	216 28	- 2 2	8.
,	7503		749	0.810	240 54	210 36	211 8	+ 1 53	T.
	7504		749	0.812	241 34	212 42	213 14	+ 0 27	t.
16.	7505	135-618	749	0.904	240 51	227 37	213 44	- 3 16	A.
1	7506		749	0.923	238 26	230 38	216 45	- 2 53	a.
17.	7507	136.470	749	0.972	241 7	241 28	215 30	- 2 56	Aº.
	7508		750	0.922	81 56	100 19	74 21	- 7 2	В.
10	7509	105.400	750	0.950	81 40	99 16	73 18	- 7 50	b.
18.	7510 7511	137-490	750	0.805	81 42	115 26	75 0	- 7 18	A.
	7512		750 750	0.817	82 7 81 16	114 26	74 0	- 8 44	a.
19.	7513	138-480	750	0.829	81 16 85 31	114 23	73 57 74 18	-79 - 72	b.
-3.	7514	100 400	750	0.617	85 47	127 4	72 36	-72 $-735$	M.
21.	7515	140-474	750	0.298	121 6	157 57	75 12	- 7 57	m. N.
	7516	110 1/1	750	0.305	116 0	155 42	82 57	- 8 24	n.
	7517	1	751	0-901	56 25	108 16	25 31	+14 16	Ö.
22.	7518	141.504	751	0.756	54 16	121 35	24 13	+15 3	s.
23.	7519	142-552	751	0.584	49 21	137 40	25 26	+14 42	Si.
25.	7520	144.461	751	0.296	12 56	164 37	25 19	+15 18	A
26.	7521	145.540	751	0.264	314 54	179 29	24 52	+14 38	Aº.
28.	7522	147-464	751	0.555	275 11	206 12	25 18	+14 34	aº.
29.	7523	148-514	751	0.713	271 8	222 24	25 37	+14 24	a'.
30.	7524	149-520	751	0.879	267 5	236 52	25 48	+14 47	M.
ine 1.	7525	151-464	752	0.964	77 54	103 1	224 23	- 4 39	A.
	7526	1	752	0.970	78 43	100 57	222 19	_ 3 41	a.
2.	7527	152-511	752	0.860	78 15	118 57	225 28	_ 4 26	A.
	7528 7529	1	752	0.875	79 56	115 48	222 19	_ 3 47	a.
	7530	1	752	0 880	82 29	116 42	223 13	- 4 34	В.
ŧ	7530 7531		752	0.869	80 37	114 57	221 28	- 4 30	b.
6.	7532	156,407	752 752	0.881	83 51	116 12	222 43 225 47	- 4 57	c.
٠.	7532 7533	156-497	752	0·138 0·145	116 14 112 2	175 49 174 8	225 47 224 6	- 3 55 - 3 11	M.
	7534		752	0.145	114 21	174 8 173 30	223 28	- 3 11 - 4 33	m.
- 1	7535	1	752	0.162	114 21	173 30	223 28	- 4 33 - 3 44	N.
1	7536		752	0.159	113 18	172 28	221 20	- 3 44	n.
1	7537		752	0 197	111 43	172 29	222 27	- 4 22	0.
24.	7538	174-529	755	0.923	254 22	258 53	53 5	- 8 12	0.
	7539	-17 029	755	0.899	254 12	256 58	51 10	-10 28	A.
İ	7540		755	0.912	252 54	252 28	46 40	-10 28	B.
i	7541		755	0.878	253 29	255 54	50 6	-10 25	C.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node.	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1866.						•	0 1	9 1	
June 24.	7542	174-529	755	0.889	253 31	257 17	5ĭ <b>2</b> 9	-11 57	b.
	7543		755	0.895	254 23	254 40	48 52	- 9 34	e.
1	7544	1	755	0.875	252 29	250 9	44 21	-12 43	d.
26.	7545	176.486	755	0.951	255 56	275 45	42 11	-10 38	A0.
	7546		755	0.976	256 32	279 52	46 18	-10 11	Mº.
	7547	!	755	0.980	257 24	277 44	44 10	-11 6	Nº.
1	7548		755	0.958	255 30	280 37	47 3	- 9 14	H.
	7549		755	0.982	257 19	281 42	48 8 41 49	-12 39 $-12 14$	b. A.
27.	7550	177.504	755	0.998	255 3	289 49		-10 48	a.
- 1	7551		755	0.997	256 54	289 20			A.
28.	7552	178-493	756	0.716	74 22	154 44	252 42 253 1		1
	7553	1	756	0.733	73 12	155 3 155 29	253 27	+710 + 640	a. b.
I	7554	,	756	0.749	73 20	130 16	228 14	- 6 20	C.
1	7555	1	757	0.958	93 58	129 8	227 6	- 7 8	c.
-	7556	100,400	757	0.957	92 16	184 57	254 31	+ 6 9	D.
30.	7557	180-496	756 756	0.348	61 50 65 39	182 56	252 30	+ 5 7	d.
	7558	1	756	0·387 0·365	65 39 64 12	183 2	252 36	+ 6 55	E.
	$7559 \\ 7560$		756	0.392	67 25	180 15	249 49	+ 7 47	e.
- 1	7561		757	0.702	97 51	160 35	230 9	- 6 59	Ğ.
1				0.734	96 43	159 41	229 15	- 6 6	
1	7562 7563		757   757	0.769	95 14	157 18	226 52	- 7 17	g. H.
1	7564	1	757	0.805	94 47	152 50	222 24	- 7 59	h.
ulv 2.	7565	182-515	756	0.157	314 26	211 19	252 14	+ 8 50	M.
uly 2.	7566	102-010	757	0.375	113 23	186 48	227 43	- 7 31	a.
1	7567	:	757	0.399	112 27	185 54	226 49	- 7 45	b.
	7568		757	0.408	112 47	183 36	224 31	- 8 39	c.
4.	7569	184.518	756	0.540	278 18	240 37	253 8	+ 8 31	Ñ.
7.	7570	104010	757	0.239	221 48	215 9	227 40	- 7 4	a.
	7571	!	757	0.196	216 23	214 34	227 5	- 7 57	a°.
5.	7572	185.505	757	0.395	250 18	227 12	225 43	- 8 28	В.
0.	7573	100 000	757	0.390	249 21	224 35	223 6	- 7 44	b.
6.	7574	186-494	757	0.594	254 58	241 47	226 16	- 7 43	A.
7.	7575	187-489	757	0.754	260 1	256 5	226 27	- 7 14	а.
9.	7576	189-505	757	0.964	263 17	285 18	227 4	- 7 39	М.
10.	7577	190-476	757	0.999	264 38	299 0	227 0	- 7 54	Mº.
12.	7578	192-496	758	0.946	99 29	158 15	57 36	-10 22	A.
13.	7579	193-497	758	0.857	104 37	173 40	58 49	- 9 58	A".
16.	7580	196-473	758	0.354	126 14	205 17	48 13	- 9 56	a.
19.	7581	199.632	758	0.634	261 42	260 14	58 21	-10 53	aº.
20.	7582	200.622	758	0.806	264 49	273 11	57 16	-10 19	al.
21.	7583	201-469	) No.	:.:L1					
30.	7584	210.466	No spo	ts visible.			/ 60		
Aug. 7.	7585	218-471	759	0.157	70 37	233 40	124 35	+ 4 16	A.
0	7586		759	0.192	68 9	232 14	123 9	+ 4 48	В.
1	7587		759	0.236	65 25	228 2	118 57	+ 6 35	a.
1	7588		759	0.208	71 0	230 55	121 50	+ 5 43	ь.
1	7589	1	759	0.257	74 8	227 26	118 21	+ 3 4	C.
i	7590	1	759	0.263	78 38	226 26	117 21	+ 3 16	c.
9.	7591	220-490	759	0.361	291 2	261 9	123 25	+ 5 0	M.
i	7592		759	0.287	290 48	256 4	118 20	+ 4 11	m.
10.	7593	221.538	759	0.563	290 15	275 4	123 28	+ 5 37	M°.
	7594		759	0.559	289 45	274 25	121 49	+48	mº.
11.	7595	222-518	759	0.714	289 53	289 46	123 16	+ 4 20	N.
	7596	1	759	0.710	289 14	287 8	120 38	+ 5 51	n.
16.	7597	227.630	760	0.555	102 5	212 19	333 19	+ 3 25	A.

TABLE III. (continued).

Date.	No	Mean T of Sur pictur	a- Group i	n from	Angle of	Longitud from Node			Spot.
1866.			*						
Aug. 1	6. 759	8 227-63	760	0.592	99 36	209 34	330 34		
, ,	759		760	0.588	102 10		329 55	$+1^{\circ}37$	, ~
	760		760	0.612	100 16	207 4	328 4	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	
1	760		760	0.571	102 50	209 27	330 27	+ 0 30	
i .	760		760	0.622	103 34	213 48	334 48	+ 1 22	c.
, 1	7. 760			0.405	101 26	226 11	333 3	+ 3 32	Aº.
1	760		760	0.436	105 19	224 40	331 32	- 1 22	M.
1	7606		760 760	0.425	102 32	222 19	329 11	+ 2 36	N.
	7607		760	0.426	105 47	225 29	332 21	- 0 16	m,
	7608		- 760	0.483 0.475	103 18 103 34	225 45	332 37	- 1 10	D.
	7609		760	0.475	103 34	223 3 224 38	329 55	+ 1 57	0.
	7610		760	0.492	106 29	221 10	331 30	+ 0 32	p.
18	3. 7611	229-44		0.164	91 59	242 34	328 2 337 49	+ 1 39	q. S.
	7612	3 (	760	0.173	95 24	240 58	337 49 336 13	+ 2 15	
	7613		760	0.205	102 52	238 33	333 48	$\begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	S
	7614		760	0.198	99 1	240 8	335 23	- 0 19	T.
	7615		760	0.255	104 58	236 51	332 6	+ 1 32	Nº.
i.	7616		760	0.276	107 33	235 45	331 0	+ 2 3	Pe
1	7617		760	0.260	106 36	237 8	332 23	- 1 39	nº.
20	7618		760	0.291	109 42	235 37	330 52	- 2 12	р.
20	. 7619 7620			0.305	285 34	271 41	335 25	+ 2 38	A.
1	7621	1	760	0.316	288 41	270 5	333 49	- 2 2	a.
i	7622		760 760	0.395	287 18	267 36	331 20	- 0 19	В.
1	7623	i	760	0.371	289 18	269 15	332 59	+ 0 25	b.
1	7624		760	0.417	290 30	272 20	336 4	+10	R.
30		241.436		0.425	293 51 309 12	266 14 274 2	329 58	_ 2 16	S.
	7626		761	0.278	310 55	274 2	199 12 200 4	+ 6 47	A. ,
31.	7627	242.455		0.466	303 6	289 48	200 4 200 31	+ 6 33	a.
	7628	1	761	0.457	304 25	289 7	199 50	+ 6 27	В.
Sept. 1.	7629	243.464	761	0.651	301 30	304 14	200 39	+71 + 69	b.
3.	7630	245.461	761	0.940	302 57	332 44	200 48		A.
_	7631		761	0.942	303 17	331 21	199 25	$+638 \\ +711$	A.
5.	7632	247.591	· ;					. + , 11	а.
10.	7633	252-525	.			1	1		1
11.	7634	253.470	!				i		
13. 14.	7635 7636	255.528	No spot	s visible.					
15.	7637	256.534	1			1			
17.	7638	257·457 259·440	11 1	1					
21.	7639	263-602	762	0.000	00.10	001			
24.	7640	266.508	762	0.802	99 18	231 51	202 36	+ 7 48	M.
25.	7641	267.451	762	0·306 0·148	89 54 40 19	272 35	202 7	+ 6 25	M
27.	7642	269-598	762	0.473	40 19 312 47	286 19 316 16	202 28	+ 7 45	A.
28.	7643	270.526	762	0.609	311 17	329 47	201 58 202 19	+ 7 4	A1.
Oct. 10.	7644	282-514	1	- 1	011 17	525 47	202 19	+ 7 16	A
13.	7645	285-515	No spots	visible.		- 1	1	1	1
15.	7646	287-479	764	0.871	125 48	251 12	243 16	-14 28	
1	7647		765	0.894	113 16	247 45	239 49	- 14 28 - 2 22	S.
1	7648		765	0.902	113 25	248 0	240 4	-222 - 29	a.
16.	7649	288-509	764	0.708	129 14	265 31	242 59	-14 5	s.
10	7650		765	0.754	114 32	262 56	240 24	- 2 36	A.
17.	7651	289-465		0.556	136 58	279 7	243 1	-14 34	s.
1	7652			0.958	102 51	236 19	200 13	+12 9	A.
	7653		766	0.961	103 13	235 32	199 26	+13 48	a.
						1			

TABLE III. (continued).

Date	).	No.	Mean Time of Sun- picture.	No. of Group in the Kew Catalogue.	Distance from Centre.	Angle of Position.	Longitude from Node,	Helio- graphical Longitude.	Helio- graphical Latitude.	Spot.
1866	3.					. ,	0 - 1	244 33	-13 ź	A.
Oct.		7654	291.596	764	0.208	204 44	310 53		+13 19	В.
		7655		766	0.679	96 57	267 4	200 44		a.
	24.	7656	296-508	766	0.406	325 8	335 59	199 59	+14 22	a.
	26.	7657	298-435	766	0.708	311 5	3 5	199 45	+12 57	aº.
	28.	7658	300-479	766	0.964	311 18	32 24	200 4	+13 14	M.
	~~	7659		767	0.309	139 33	304 56	112 36	- 6 5	
		7660		767	0.329	136 23	301 43	109 23	4 11	m.
	- 1	7661		767	0.371	137 10	302 39	110 19	- 5 50	n.
		7662		767	0.388	131 55	299 37	107 17	4 4	0.
			303-434	767	0.451	279 31	350 17	116 3	- 6 42	Mº.
	31.	7663	202,494	767	0.362	281 21	345 39	111 25	- 4 31	N.
	1	7664		767	0.365	283 7	345 8	110 54	- 3 26	n.
	_	7665	005.400		0.805	279 8	18 53	115 36	- 5 22	A.
Nov.	2.	7666	305.482	767	0.802	281 19	14 6	110 49	- 3 39	a.
		7667	1	767			14 28	111 11	- 4 54	a.
	-	7668		767	0.765	284 32	12 20			4
	4.	7669	307.514	1]	1		1			i
	6.	7670	309.432	11	1		1	Į		1
	8.	7671	311.529	>No spo	ts visible.		1	1		1
	14.	7672	317.458	11 .	1		1	1		ļ
	17.	7673	320.466					110 40	119 6	Α.
	19.	7674	322.474	768	0.936	94 38	263 7	118 48	+13 6	
	13.	7675	1 222	768	0.937	93 12	260 49	116 30	+13 7	b.
		7676	1	768	0.949	93 47	262 9	117 50	+14 47	C.
	20.		323.504	768	0.830	93 32	276 13	117 18	+13 12	Μ.
	zu.	7677	323 304	768	0.846	92 6	276 33	117 38	+1355	m.
	1	7678	1	769	0.958	106 30	263 38	104 53	. + 2 6	0.
		7679	004.400		0.692	87 16	291 44	118 47	+14 30	M
	21.	7680	324-493	768	0.845	104 47	278 48	105 51	+ 1 57	O
		7681	000 410	769		26 11	347 41	118 38	+13 58	. A.
	25.	7682	328-448	768	0.236	31 47	346 1	116 58	+14 21	a.
		7683		768	0.241		333 21	104 18	+ 1 54	В.
		7684		769	0.286	105 49	333 13	104 10	+ 2 33	b.
		7685		769	0.288	106 51	348 21	104 44	+ 1 20	S.
	26.	7686	329-476	769	0.236	290 29		105 40	- 0 35	T.
		7687		769	0.209	284 31	349 17	103 40	+ 2 41	s.
		7688		769	0.211	293 9	348 11	,		t.
		7689	1	769	0.219	297 30	348 12	104 35	-	s.
	27.	7690	330-535		0.306	331 38	3 25	104 46		A.
	٠,٠	7691	1 332 302	770	0.494	80 39	324 35	65 56	+ 9 9	1
		7692		770	0.550	81 51	320 37	61 58	+ 8 12	a. B.
		7693		770	0.536	80 19	322 57	64 18	+ 8 22	1
		7694		770	0.556	82 38	319 23	60 44	+ 8 21	b.
	00		331.50	1 1	0.632	288 52	16 24	104 3	+ 2 9	C
1	28.			1	0.820	286 38	45 41	105 39	+16	C
	30.		333.45		0.814	285 18	44 10	104 8	+ 1 37	c.
		7697	1 010 10	769	0-014	200 10	1			į
Dec					i	1	1			1
1	14				oots visible.	1				1
	19			9	1	1	1		:	1
1	28		361.50	2	1	i	1	1	i	î

XXII. On the Mechanical Performance of Logical Inference. By W. Stanley Jevons, M.A. (Lond.), Professor of Logic, &c. in Owens College, Manchester. Communicated by Professor H. E. Roscoe, F.R.S.

Received October 16, 1869,-Read January 20, 1870.

- 1. It is an interesting subject for reflection that from the earliest times mechanical assistance has been required in mental operations. The word calculation at once reminds us of the employment of pebbles for marking units, and it is asserted that the word aριθμὸς is also derived from the like notion of a pebble or material sign*. Even in the time of Aristotle the wide extension of the decimal system of numeration had been remarked and referred to the use of the fingers in reckoning; and there can be no doubt that the form of the most available arithmetical instrument, the human hand, has reacted upon the mind and moulded our numerical system into a form which we should not otherwise have selected as the best.
- 2. From early times, too, distinct mechanical instruments were devised to facilitate computation. The Greeks and Romans habitually employed the *abacus* or arithmetical board, consisting, in its most convenient form, of an oblong frame with a series of cross wires, each bearing ten sliding beads. The *abacus* thus supplied, as it were, an unlimited series of fingers, which furnished marks for successive higher units and allowed of the representation of any number. The Russians employ the abacus at the present day under the name of the *shtshob*, and the Chinese have from time immemorial made use of an almost exactly similar instrument called the *schwanpan*.
- 3. The introduction into Europe of the Arabic system of numeration caused the abacus to be generally superseded by a far more convenient system of written signs; but mathematicians are well aware that their science, however much it may advance, always requires a corresponding development of material symbols for relieving the memory and guiding the thoughts. Almost every step accomplished in the progress of the arts and sciences has produced some mechanical device for facilitating calculation or representing its result. I may mention astronomical clocks, mechanical globes, planetariums, slide rules, &c. The ingenious rods known as Napier's Bones, from the name of their inventor, or the Promptuarium Multiplicationis of the same celebrated mathematician †, are curious examples of the tendency to the use of material instruments.

MDCCCLXX.

^{*} Professor DE Morgan "On the word 'Αριθμώς," Proceedings of the Philological Society (p. 9).

[†] Rabdologiæ seu numerationis per virgulas libri duo: cum appendice de expeditissimo multiplicationis Promptuario. Quibus accessit et Arithmeticæ Localis Liber Unus. Authore et Inventore Joanne Nepelio, Barone Merchistonii &c. Lugduni, 1626.

- 4. As early as the 17th century we find that machinery was made to perform actual arithmetical calculation. The arithmetical machine of Pascal was constructed in the years 1642-45, and was an invention worthy of that great genius. Into the peculiarities of the machines subsequently proposed or constructed by the Marquis of Worcester, Sir Samuel Morland, Leibnitz, Gersten, Scheutz, Donkin, and others we need not inquire; but it is worthy of notice that M. Thomas, of Colmar, has recently manufactured an arithmetical machine so perfect in construction and so moderate in cost, that it is frequently employed with profit in mercantile, engineering, and other calculations.
- 5. It was reserved for the profound genius of Mr. Babbage to make the greatest advance in mechanical calculation, by embodying in a machine the principles of the calculus of differences. Automatic machinery thus became capable of computing the most complicated mathematical tables*; and in his subsequent design for an Analytical Engine Mr. Babbage has shown that material machinery is capable, in theory at least, of rivalling the labours of the most practised mathematicians in all branches of their science. Mind thus seems able to impress some of its highest attributes upon matter, and to create its own rival in the wheels and levers of an insensible machine.
- 6. It is highly remarkable that when we turn to the kindred science of logic we meet with no real mechanical aids or devices. Logical works abound, it is true, with metaphorical expressions implying a consciousness that our reasoning powers require such assistance, even in the most abstract operations of thought. In or before the 15th century the logical works of the greatest logician came to be commonly known as the Organon or Instrument, and, for several centuries, logic itself was defined as Ars instrumentalis dirigens mentem nostram in cognitionem omnium intelligibilium.

When Francis Bacon exposed the futility of the ancient deductive logic, he still held that the mind is helpless without some mechanical rule, and in the second aphorism of his 'New Instrument' he thus strikingly asserts the need:—

Nec manus nuda, nec Intellectus sibi permissus, multum valet; Instrumentis et auxiliis res perficitur; quibus opus est, non minus ad intellectum, quam ad manum. Atque ut instrumenta manus motum aut cient, aut regunt; ita et Instrumenta mentis, Intellectui aut suggerunt aut cavent.

7. In all such expressions, however, the word *Instrument* is used metaphorically to denote an invariable formula or rule of words, or system of procedure. Even when RAYMOND LULLY put forth his futile scheme of a mechanical syllogistic, the mechanical apparatus consisted of nothing but written diagrams. It is rarely indeed that any invention is made without some anticipation being sooner or later discovered; but up to the present time I am totally unaware of even a single previous attempt to devise or construct a machine which should perform the operations of logical inference; and it is only I believe in the satirical writings of Swift that an allusion to an actual reasoning machine is to be found.

^{*} See Companion to the Almanack for 1866, p. 5. 

† See note at the end of this paper, p. 518.

[‡] In the recent Life of Sir W. Hamilton, by Professor Verrce, is given an account and figure of a wooden instrument employed by Sir W. Hamilton in his logical lectures to represent the comparative extent and intent

- 2. The only reason which I can assign for this complete inability of logicians to devise a real logical instrument, is the great imperfection of the doctrines which they entertained. Until the present century logic has remained substantially as it was moulded by Aristotic 2200 years ago. Had the science of quantity thus remained stationary since the days of PYTHAGORAS or EUCLID, it is certain that we should not have heard of the axithmetical machine of Pascal, or the difference-engine of Babbage. And I venture to look upon the logical machine which I am about to describe as equally a result and indication of a profound reform and extension of logical science accomplished within the present century by a series of English writers, of whom I may specially name JEREMY BENTHAM, GEORGE BENTHAM, Professor DE MORGAN, Archbishop THOMSON, Sir W. Hamilton, and the late distinguished Fellow of the Royal Society, Dr. Boole. result of their exertions has been to effect a breach in the supremacy of the Aristotelian: logic, and to furnish us, as I shall hope to show by visible proof, with a system of logical. deduction almost infinitely more general and powerful than anything to be found in the The ancient syllogism was incapable of mechanical performance because of its extreme incompleteness and crudeness, and it is only when we found our system upon the fundamental laws of thought themselves that we arrive at a system of deduction which can be embodied in a machine acting by simple and uniform movements,
- 9. To George Boole, even more than to any of the logicians I have named, this great advance in logical doctrine is due. In his 'Mathematical Analysis of Logic' (1847), and in his most remarkable work 'Of the Laws of Thought' (London, 1854), he first put forth the problem of logical science in its complete generality:—Given certain logical premises or conditions, to determine the description of any class of objects under those conditions. Such was the general problem of which the ancient logic had solved but a few isolated cases—the nineteen moods of the syllogism, the sorites, the dilemma, the disjunctive syllogism, and a few other forms. Boole showed incontestably that it was possible, by the aid of a system of mathematical signs, to deduce the conclusions of all these ancient modes of reasoning, and an indefinite number of other conclusions. Any conclusion, in short, that it was possible to deduce from any set of premises or conditions, however numerous and complicated, could be calculated by his method.
- 10. Yet Boole's achievement was rather to point out the extent of the problem and the possibility of solving it, than himself to give a clear and final solution. As readers of his logical works must be well aware, he shrouded the simplest logical processes in the mysterious operations of a mathematical calculus. The intricate trains of symbolic transformations, by which many of the examples in the 'Laws of Thought' are solved, can be followed only by highly accomplished mathematical minds; and even a mathematician would fail to find any demonstrative force in a calculus which fearlessly employs unmeaning and incomprehensible symbols, and attributes a signification to

of meaning of terms; but it was merely of an illustrative character, and does not seem to have been capable of performing any mechanical operations.

them by a subsequent process of interpretation. It is surely sufficient to condemn the peculiar mathematical form of Boole's method, that if it were the true form of logical deduction, only well-trained mathematicians could ever comprehend the action of those laws of thought, on the habitual use of which our existence as superior beings depends.

- 11. Having made Boole's logical works a subject of study for many years past, I endeavoured to show in my work on Pure Logic* that the mysterious mathematical forms of BOOLE's logic are altogether superfluous, and that in one point of great importance, the employment of exclusive instead of unexclusive alternatives, he was deeply mistaken. Rejecting the mathematical dress and the erroneous conditions of his symbols, we arrive at a logical method of the utmost generality and simplicity. In a later work+ I have given a more mature and clear view of the principles of this Calculus of Logic, and of the processes of reasoning in general, and to these works I must refer readers who may be interested in the speculative or theoretical views of the subject. In the present paper my sole purpose is to bring forward a visible and tangible proof that a new system of logical deduction has been attained. The logical machine which I am about to describe is no mere model illustrative of the fixed forms of the syllogism. It is an analytical engine of a very simple character, which performs a complete analysis of any logical problem impressed upon it. By merely reading down the premises or data of an argument on a key board representing the terms, conjunctions, copula, and stops of a sentence, the machine is caused to make such a comparison of those premises that it becomes capable of returning any answer which may be logically deduced from them. It It is charged, as it were, with a certain amount of information which can be drawn from it again in any logical form which may be desired. The actual process of logical deduction is thus reduced to a purely mechanical form, and we arrive at a machine embodying the 'Laws of Thought,' which may almost be said to fulfil in a substantial manner the vague idea of an organon or instrumental logic which has flitted during many centuries before the minds of logicians.
- 12. As the ordinary views of logic and the doctrine of the syllogism would give little or no assistance in comprehending the action of the machine, I find it necessary to preface the description of the machine itself with a brief and simple explanation of the principles of the indirect method of inference which is embodied in it, avoiding any reference to points of abstract or speculative interest which could not be suitably treated in the present paper.
- 13. Whatever be the form in which the rules of deductive logic are presented, their validity must rest ultimately upon the Three Fundamental Laws of Thought which develope the nature of Identity and Diversity. These laws are three in number. The first appears to give a definition of Identity by asserting that a thing is identical with

^{*} Pure Logic, or the Logic of Quality apart from Quantity: with Remarks on Boole's System, and on the relation of Logic and Mathematics. London, 1864 (Stanford).

[†] The Substitution of Similars, the True Principle of Reasoning: derived from a Modification of Aristotle's Dictum. London, 1869 (Macmillar).

itself; the second, known as the Law of Contradiction, states that a thing cannot at the same time and place combine contradictory or opposite attributes; whatever A and B may be it is certain that A cannot be both B and not B. This law, then, excludes from real, or even conceivable existence, any combination of opposite attributes.

The third law, commonly known as the Law of Excluded Middle, but which I prefer, to call by the simpler title of the Law of Duality, asserts that every thing must either possess any given attribute or must not possess it. A must either be B or not B. It enables us to predict anterior to all particular experience the alternatives which may be asserted of any object. When united, these laws give us the all-sufficient means of analyzing the results of any assertion: the Law of Duality developes for us the classes of objects which may exist; the Law of Identity allows us to substitute for any name or term that which is asserted or known to be identical with it; while the Law of Contradiction directs us to exclude any class or alternative which is thus found to involve self-contradiction.

14. To illustrate this by the simplest possible instance, suppose we have given the assertion that

#### A metal is an element,

and it is required to arrive at the description of the class of compound or not-elementary bodies so far as affected by this assertion. The process of thought is as follows:—

By the Law of Duality I develope the class not-element into two possible parts, those which are metal and those which are not metal, thus—

### What is not element is either metal or not-metal.

The given premise, however, enables me to assert that what is metal is element; so that if I allowed the first of these alternatives to stand there would be a not-element which is yet an element. The law of contradiction directs me to exclude this alternative from further consideration, and there remains the inference, commonly known as the contrapositive of the premise, that

#### What is not element is not metal.

Though this is a case of the utmost simplicity, the process is capable of repeated application ad infinitum, and logical problems of any degree of complication can thus be solved by the direct use of the most fundamental Laws of Thought.

15. To take an instance involving three instead of two terms, let the premises be—

Iron is a metal . . . . (1) Metal is element . . . (2)

We can, by the Law of Duality, develope any of these terms into four possible combinations. Thus

Iron is metal, element; . . .  $(\alpha)$ 

or metal, not-element; . .  $(\beta)$ 

or not-metal, element; . .  $(\gamma)$ 

or not-metal, not-element . (d)

But the first premise informs us that iron is a metal, and thus excludes the combinations  $(\gamma)$  and  $(\delta)$ , while the second premise informs us that metal must be element, and thus further excludes the combination  $(\beta)$ . It follows that iron must be described by the first alternative  $(\alpha)$  only, and that it is an element, thus proving the conclusion of the syllogistic mood Barbara.

16. In employing this method of inference, it is soon found to be tedious to write out at full length in words the combinations of terms to be considered. It is much better to substitute for the words single letters, A, B, C, &c., which may stand in their place and bear in each problem a different meaning, just as x, y, z in algebra signify different quantities in different problems, and are really used as brief marks to be substituted for the full descriptions of those quantities. At the same time it is convenient to substitute for the corresponding negative terms small italic letters, a, b, c, &c.; thus

if A	lenot	te iron,	αd	enotes	what i	s not-iron.
В	**	metal,	ъ	**	77	not-metal.
$\mathbf{C}$	•••	element,	c	,,	,,	not-element.

When these general terms are combined side by side, as in A B C,  $\alpha$  B C, they denote a term or thing combining the properties of the separate terms. Thus A B C denotes iron which is metal and element;  $\alpha$  B C denotes metal which is element but not iron. These letter terms A, B, C,  $\alpha$ , b, c, &c. can, in short, be joined together in the manner of adjectives and nouns.

- 17. I must particularly insist upon the fact, however, that there is nothing peculiar or mysterious in these letter symbels. They have no force or meaning but such as they derive from the nouns and adjectives for which they stand as mere abbreviations, intended to save the labour of writing, and the want of clearness and conciseness attaching to a long clause or series of words. In the system put forth by Boole various symbols of obscure or even incomprehensible meaning were introduced; and it was implied that the inference came from operations different from those of common thought and common language. I am particularly anxious to prevent the misapprehension that the method of inference embodied in the machine is at all symbolic and dark, or differs from what the unaided human mind can perform in simple cases.
- 18. Great clearness and brevity are, however, gained by the use of letter terms; for if we take

A = iron, B = metal, C = element;

then the premises of the problem considered are simply

Iron is metal .		A is B,				(1)
Metal is element		B is C.				(2)

The combinations in which A may manifest itself are, according to the Laws of Thought,

A	B	C,	٠.	٠,		٠,	(a)
A	B	e ,		·•			$(\beta)$
A	Б	C,					(7)
A	ð	e.					(8)

But of these  $(\gamma)$  and  $(\delta)$  are contradicted by (1) and  $(\beta)$  by (2). Hence A is identical with  $\stackrel{\bullet}{A}$  B C.

and this term, A B C, contains the full description of A or iron under the conditions (1) and (2).

Similarly, we may obtain the description of the term or class of things not-element, denoted by c. For by the Law of Duality c may be developed into its alternatives or possible combinations.

A B $c$ ,				( <b>B</b> )
A $b$ $c$ ,				(8)
$\alpha$ B $c$ ,				(ζ)
$\alpha$ $b$ $c$ .				$(\theta)$

Of these  $(\beta)$  and  $(\zeta)$  are contradicted by (2) and  $(\delta)$  by (1); so that, excluding these contradictory terms, a b c alone remains as the description or equivalent of the class c. Hence what is not-element, is always not-metallic and is also not-iron.

19. In practising this process of indirect inference upon problems of even moderate complexity, it is found to be tedious in consequence of the number of alternatives which have to be written and considered time after time. Modes of abbreviation can, however, be readily devised. In the problem already considered it is evident that the same combination sometimes occurs over again, as in the cases of  $(\beta)$  and  $(\delta)$ ; and if we were desirous of deducing all the conclusions which could be drawn from the premises we should find the combination  $(\alpha)$  occurring in all the separate classes A, AB, B, BC, AC. Similarly, the combination  $\alpha$  b C occurs in the classes  $\alpha$ , b, C,  $\alpha$  b,  $\alpha$  C, b C, and it would be an absurd loss of labour to examine again and again whether the same combination is or is not contradicted by the premises. It is certain that all the combinations of the terms A, B, C,  $\alpha$ , b, c, which are possible under the universal conditions of thought and existence are but eight in number, as follows:—

ABC (a) ABc (B) A b C  $(\gamma)$ (ð) Ab c a B C (8) **(**٤) a Bc a b C (n)a b c (A)

All the classes of things which can possibly exist will be represented by an appropriate selection from this list; B will consist of  $(\alpha)$ ,  $(\beta)$ , (s) and  $(\zeta)$ ; C will consist of (a),  $(\gamma)$ , (s) and  $(\eta)$ ; BC will consist of the combinations common to these classes, as  $(\alpha)$  and (s); and so on. If we wish, then, to effect a complete solution of a logical problem, it will save much labour to make out in the first place the complete development of combinations, to examine each of these in connexion with the premises, to eliminate the inconsistent combinations, and afterwards to select from the remaining consistent combinations such as may form any class of which we desire the description. Performing these processes in the case of the premises (1) and (2), we find that of the eight conceivable combinations only four remain consistent with the premises, viz.:—

A	В.	$\mathbf{C}$					(a)
							(E)
$\boldsymbol{a}$	ь	$\mathbf{C}$		•	•		(1)
							(0)

In this list of combinations the conditions (1) and (2) are, as it were, embodied and expressed, so that we at once learn that A according to those conditions consists of A B C only;

B consists of 
$$(\alpha)$$
 or  $(\varepsilon)$ 
 $b$  ,, ,,  $(\eta)$  or  $(\theta)$ 
 $c$  ,, ,,  $(\theta)$ 
 $a$  ,, ,,  $(\varepsilon)$ ,  $(\eta)$  or  $(\theta)$ .

- 20. It is easily seen that the solution of every problem which involves three terms A, B, C will consist in making a similar selection of consistent combinations from the same series of eight conceivable combinations. Problems involving four distinct terms would similarly require a series of sixteen conceivable combinations, and if five or six terms enter, there will be thirty-two or sixty-four of such combinations. These series of combinations appear to hold a position in logical science at least as important as that of the multiplication table in arithmetic or the coefficients of the binomial theorem in the higher parts of mathematics. I propose to call any such complete series of combinations a Logical Abecedarium, but the number of combinations increases so rapidly with the number of separate terms that I have not found it convenient to go beyond the sixty-four combinations of the six terms A, B, C, D, E, F and their negatives.
- 21. To a person who has once comprehended the extreme significance and utility of the Logical Abecedarium, the whole indirect process of inference becomes reduced to the repetition of a few uniform operations of classification, selection, and elimination of contradictories. Logical deduction becomes, in short, a matter of routine, and the amount of labour required the only impediment to the solution of any question. I have directed much attention, therefore, to reduce the labour required, and have in previous publications described devices which partially accomplish this purpose. The Logical Slate consists of the complete Abecedarium engraved upon a common writing slate, and merely

saves the labour of writing out the combinations*. The same purpose may be effected by having series of combinations printed ready upon separate sheets of paper, a series of proper length being selected for the solution of any problem, and the inconsistent combinations being struck out with the pen as they are discovered on examination with the premises.

- 22. A second step towards a mechanical logic was soon seen to be easy and desirable. The fixed order of the combinations in the written abecedarium renders it necessary to consider them separately, and to pick out by repeated acts of mental attention those which fall into any particular class. Considerable labour and risk of mistake thus arise. The Logical Abacus was devised to avoid these objections, and was constructed by placing the combinations of the abecedarium upon separate moveable slips of wood, which can then be easily classified, selected and arranged according to the conditions of the problem. The construction and use of this Abacus have, however, been sufficiently described both in the 'Proceedings of the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society' for 3rd April, 1866, and more fully in my recently published work, called 'The Substitution of Similars,' which contains a figure of the Abacus. I will only remark, therefore, that while the logical slate or printed abecedarium is convenient for the private study of logical problems, the abacus is peculiarly adapted for the logical class-room. By its use the operations of classification and selection, on which Boole's logic, and in fact any logic must be founded, can be represented, and the clearest possible solution of any question can be shown to a class of students, each step in the solution being made distinctly apparent.
- 23. In proceeding to explain how the process of logical deduction by the use of the abecedarium can be reduced to a purely mechanical form, I must first point out that certain simple acts of classification are alone required for the purpose. If we take the eight conceivable combinations of the terms A, B, C, and compare them with a proposition of the form

A is B, 
$$\ldots$$
 (1)

we find that the combinations fall apart into three distinct groups, which may be thus indicated:—

The highest group contains those combinations which are all a's, and on account of

* See Pure Logic, p. 68.

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the absence of A are unaffected by the statement that A's are B's; they are thus seconded from the sphere of meaning of the premise, and their consistency with truth cannot be affected by that premise. The middle group contains A-combinations, included within the meaning of the premise, but which also are B-combinations, and therefore comply with the condition expressed in the premise. The lowest group consists of A-combinations also, but such as are distinguished by the absence of B, and which are therefore inconsistent with the premise requiring that where A is, there B shall be likewise. This analysis would evidently be effected most simply by placing the eight combinations of the absencedarium in the middle rank, raising the a's into a higher rank, and then lowering such b's as remain in the middle rank into a lower rank. But as we only require in the solution of a problem to eliminate the inconsistent combinations, we must unite again the two upper ranks, and we then have

24. Supposing we now introduce the second premise,

the operations will be exactly similar, with the exception that certain combinations have already been eliminated from the abecedarium by the first premise. These contradicted combinations may or may not be consistent with the second premise, but in any case they cannot be readmitted. Whatever is inconsistent with any one condition, is to be deemed inconsistent throughout the problem. Hence the analysis effected by the second premise may be thus represented:—

Combinations consistent with (1).

Combinations included and 
$$A = B = B = C = C$$

Combinations inconsistent with (2)  $A = B = C$ 

Combinations inconsistent with (2)  $A = B = C$ 

Combinations inconsistent with (2)  $A = B = C$ 

Combinations inconsistent with (2)  $A = B = C$ 

Combinations inconsistent with (1)  $A = B = C$ 

To effect the above classification, we first move down to a lower rank the combinations inconsistent with (1); we then raise the b's, and out of the remaining B's lower the c's.

But as all our operations are directed only to distinguish the consistent and inconsistent combinations, we now join the highest to the second rank, and the third to the lowest, as follows:—

Combinations consistent with (1) and (2) . . 
$$\begin{cases}
A & a & a & a \\
B & B & b & b
\end{cases}$$
Combinations inconsistent with (1) or (2), or both . 
$$\begin{cases}
A & A & A & a \\
B & b & b & B
\end{cases}$$

- 25. The problem is now solved, and it only remains to put any question we may desire. Thus if we want the description of the class A, we may raise out of the consistent combinations such as are a's, and the sole remaining combination A B C gives the description required, agreeably to our former conclusion. To obtain the description of B, we unite the consistent combinations again and raise the b's; there will remain two combinations A B C and a B C, showing that B is always C, but that, so far as the conditions of the problem go, it may or may not be A.
- 26. In considering such other kinds of propositions as might occur, we meet the case where two or more terms are combined together to form the subject or predicate, as in the example

meaning that whatever combinations contain both A and B, ought also to contain C. This case presents no difficulty; and to obtain the included combinations it is only necessary to raise out of the whole series of combinations the a's and b's, simultaneously or successively. The result, in whatever way we do it, is as follows:—

We may then remove such of the included combinations, i. e. A B c only, as may be inconsistent with the premise, and proceed as before.

27. Had the predicate instead of the subject contained two terms as in

we should have required to raise the a's and then lower the b's and the c's, in an exactly similar manner.

28. The only further complication to be considered arises from the occurrence of the disjunctive conjunction or in the subject or predicate, as in the case

To investigate the proper mode of treating this condition, we may take the same series of eight conceivable combinations and raise those constaining a, in order to separate the excluded combinations. But it is not now sufficient simply to lower such of the included combinations as contain b, and condemn these as inconsistent with the premise. For though these combinations do not contain B they may contain C, and may require to be admitted as consistent on account of the second alternative of the predicate. While the A B's are certainly to be admitted, the A b's must be subjected to a new process of selection. Now the simplest mode of preparing for this new selection is to join the A B's to the a's or excluded combinations, to move up the A b's into the place last occupied by the A's, to lower such of the A b's as do not contain C. The result will then be as follows:—

Excluded combinations and included A A	$\alpha$	а	a	$\boldsymbol{a}$
combinations consistent with 1st B B	$\mathbf{B}$	B	a b C	b
Excluded combinations and included A A combinations consistent with 1st B B alternative	C	c	$\mathbf{C}$	c
Included combination inconsistent with 1st $\begin{pmatrix} \Lambda \\ h \end{pmatrix}$ but consistent with 2nd alternative $\begin{pmatrix} \Lambda \\ C \end{pmatrix}$				
Included combination inconsistent with both alter- $\begin{bmatrix} A \\ b \end{bmatrix}$				

It is only the lowest rank of combinations, in this case containing only  $\Lambda \hbar c$ , which is inconsistent with the premise as a whole, and which is therefore to be condemned as contradictory; and if we join the two higher ranks we have effected the requisite analysis.

29. It will be apparent that should the subject of the premise contain a disjunctive conjunction, as in

#### A or B is C.

a similar series of operations would have to be performed. We must not merely raise the a's and treat them as excluded combinations, but must return them to undergo a new sifting, whereby the a B's will be recognized as included in the meaning of the subject, and only the a b's will be treated as excluded. This analysis effected, the remaining operations are exactly as before.

30. The reader will perhaps have remarked that in the case of none of the premises considered has it been requisite to separate the combinations of the abecedarium into more than four groups or ranks, and it may be added that all problems involving simple logical relations only have been sufficiently represented by the examples used. The task of constructing a mechanical logic is thus reduced to that of classifying a series of wooden rods representing the conceivable combinations of the abecedarium into certain definite groups distinguished by their positions, and providing such mechanical arrangements, that wherever a letter term occurs in the subject or predicate of a proposition,

Jevons.	**	1700 1700 1100 00011111 1 00000 1111111
	Finia. A rredicat.  B  C  C  C  C  Conjunction  Or (Subject)  Full  Stope.	Paris de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant
	Conjunction (Conjunction (Orleandinate) d Subject  D  C  B  A  Copula To  Scale fig	Capata  Scretz 1/3

or a conjunction, copula or step intervence, the pressure of a corresponding lever or key shall execute systematically the required movements of the combinations.

- 31. The principles upon which the logical machine is based will now be apparent to the reader; and as the construction of the machine involves no mechanical difficulties of any importance, it only remains for me to give as clear a description, of its companent parts and movements as their somewhat perplexing character admits of.
- 32. The Machine, which has been actually finished, is adapted to the solution of any problems not involving more than four distinct positive terms, indicated by A, B, C, D, with, of course, their corresponding negatives, a, b, c, d The requisite combinations of the abecedarium are, therefore, sixteen in number (§ 20. p 504), and each combination is represented by a pair of square rods of baywood (Plate XXXII fig. 1), united by a short piece of cord and slung over two round horizontal bars of wood (d, d, figs 2 & 3), so as to balance each other and to slide freely and perpendicularly in wooden collars (b, b, figs. 2, 3, & 4) closed by plain wooden bars (c, c). To each rod is attached a thin piece of baywood,  $8\frac{1}{2}$  inches long and 1 inch wide  $(a, a, \text{figs } 2 \otimes 3)$ , bearing the letters of the combination Each letter occupies a space of I mich in height, but is separated from the adjoining letter by a blank space of white paper 1; inch long Both at the front and back of the machine are precised four horizontal shits, 11 inch apart, extending the whole width of the case, and \(\frac{1}{2}\) inch in height, so placed that when the rods are in their normal position each letter shall be visible through a slit. The machine thus exhibits on its two sides, when the rods are in a certain position, the combinations of the abecedarium as shown in fig. 5; but should any of the rods be moved upwards or downwards through a certain limited distance the letters will become invisible as at ff (Plate XXXIII fig. 5).
- 33. Externally the machine consists of a framework, seen in perpendicular section in fig. 3 (q, e), and in horizontal section in fig. 4 (q, q), which serves at once to support and contain the moving parts. It is closed at the front and back by large doors (h, h, fig. 3), in the middle panels of which are piecced the slits rendering the letters of the abecedarum visible.
- 34 The rods are moved upwards, and the opposite rods of each pair are thus caused to fall downwards, by a series of long flat levers seen in section at i l, l (figs. 2, 3, 6 13). These levers revolve on pivots inscrited in the thicker part, and move in seckets attached to the inner side of the framework.—Brass aims  $\{m, m, \text{figs.}\}$  & 13), connected by copper wires  $\{n, n\}$  with the keys of the machine  $\{n, n\}$ , in that the levers, which are caused to return, when the key is released, by spiral brass springs  $\{s, s\}$
- 35 The levers communicate motion to the rods by means of biass pins fixed in the inner side of the rods (fig. 2). At it is upon the peculiar arrangement of these pins that the whole action of the machine depends, the position of each of the 272 pins is shown by a dot in fig. 1, in which are also indicated the function of each pin and the combination represented by each pair of rods. It is seen that certain pins are placed uniformly in all the adjoining rods, as in the rows opposite the words Fines, Conjunction. Copula, Full Stop. These may be called operation pins and must be distinguished from

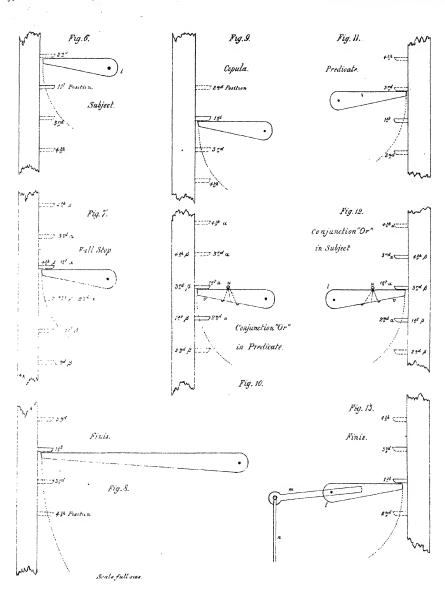
the letter pins, representing the terms of the combination, and varied in each pair of sods to correspond with the letters of the abecedarium. On examining fig. 1, it will be apparent that the pins are distributed in a negative manner; that is to say, it is the absence of a pin in the space A, and its presence in the space a, which constitutes the rod a representative of the term A. The rods belonging to the combination A  $b \in A$ , for instance, have pins in the spaces belonging to the letters a, B, c, D.

36. The key board of the instrument is shown in fig. 4, where are seen two sets of term or letter keys, marked A, a, B, b, C, c, D, d, separated by a key marked Copula—Is. The letter keys on the left belong to the subject of a proposition, those on the right to the predicate, and on either side just beyond the letter keys is a Conjunction key, appropriated to the disjunctive conjunction or, according as it occurs in the subject or predicate. The last key on the right hand is marked Full Stor, and is to be pressed at the end of each proposition, where the full stop is properly placed. On the extreme left, lastly, is a key marked Finis, which is used to terminate one problem and prepare the machine for a new one.

37. In order to gain a clear comprehension of the action of these keys, we must now turn to fig. 2, where all the levers are shown in position, only three of them being inserted in fig. 3, and to figs 6-13 (Plate XXXIV.), which represent, in the full natural size, the relative positions of each kind of lever with regard to the pins in every possible position of the rods.

If the subject key A be pressed it actuates the lever A at the back of the machine; and supposing all the rods to be in then proper initial positions, it moves upwards, as in fig. 6, all the back a rods through exactly half an inch, the front rods connected with them of course falling through half an inch. All the a combinations are thus caused to disappear from the abecedarium; but as the A rods have no pins opposite to the A lever, they will remain unmoved, and continue visible. Thus the pressure of the A key effects the selection of the class A of the conceivable combinations. Each subject letter key similarly acts upon a lever at the back, and should several of them be pressed, either simultaneously or in succession, the combinations containing the corresponding letters will be selected.

- 38. Each predicate letter key is connected with a lever in the front of the machine, and when pressed the effect is exactly the same as that of a subject key, but in the opposite direction (fig. 11). If the B predicate key be pressed it raises through half an inch all the front rods which happen to have corresponding pins, and to be in the initial position. The back rods will at the same time fall, and the combinations containing b will disappear from the abecedarium, but in the opposite direction.
- 39. It is now necessary to explain that each rod has four possible positions fully indicated in the figs. 6-13. The first of these positions is the neutral or initial position, in which the letters are visible in the abecedarium, and the letter pins are opposite letter levers so as to be acted upon by them. The second position is that into which a rod is thrown by a subject key; the third position lies in the opposite direction, and is that



into which a red is thrown by a predicate key. The fourth position lies one half inch beyond the third. The four positions evidently correspond to the four classes into which combinations were classified in the previous part of the paper as follows:—

Second Position.—Combinations excluded from the sphere of the premise.

First Position.—Combinations included, but consistent with the premise.

Third Position—Temporary position of combinations contradicted by the premise: also temporary position of combinations excluded from some of the alternatives of a disjunctive predicate.

Fourth Position.—Final position of contradictory or inconsistent combinations.

40. Let us now follow out the motions produced by impressing the sample proposition

### A is B

upon the machine, all the rods being at first in the initial or first position. The keys to be pressed in succession are—

First. The subject key, A. Second. The copula key. Third The predicate key, B. Fourth. The full-stop key.

The subject key A has the effect of throwing all the  $\alpha$  rods from the first into the second position, the back rods rusing and the front rods falling  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch

The copula key will in this case have no effect, for, as seen in fig. 9 (Plate XXXIV.), it acts only on rods in the third position, of which there are at present none.

The predicate key (fig. 11) does not act upon such of the rods (those marked a) as are in the second position, but it acts upon those in the first position, provided they have pins opposite the lever. The effect thus far will be that the a rods are in the second position, the Ab rods in the third, while the A B rods remain undisturbed in the first position. An analysis has been effected exactly similar to that explained above (§ 23, p. 505).

41. The full-stop key being now pressed has a double effect. It acts only on a single lever at the front of the machine (figs. 2 & 7), but the front rods all have in the space opposite to the lever two purs one inch apart (fig. 1). These pins we may distinguish as the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  pins, the  $\alpha$  pin being the uppermost While a rod is in the first position the lever passes between the pins and has no effect; but if the rod be lowered inch into the second position, the lever will cause the rod to return to the first position by means of the  $\alpha$  pin; but if the rod be raised into the third position, the  $\beta$  pin will come into gear, and the rod will be pushed 1 inch further into the fourth position. Now in the case we are examining, the AB's are in the first position and will so remain; the a's are in the second and will return to the first, the Ab's are in the third, and will therefore proceed onwards to the fourth. The reader will now see that we have effected the classification of the combinations as required into those consistent with the premise A is B, whether they be included or not in the term A, and those contradicted by the premise which have been ejected into the fourth position. An examination of the figures 6-13 will show that only one lever (fig. 8) moved by the Finis key affects rods in

the fourth position, so that any combination rod once condemned as contradictory to remains until the close of the problem, and its letters are no more seen upon the abecedarium.

42. Any other proposition, for instance, B is C, can now be impressed on the keys, and the effects are exactly similar, except that the Ab combinations are out of reach of the levers. The B subject key throws the b's into the second, the C predicate key throws the Bo's into the third, and the full stop throws the latter into the fourth, where they join the Ab's already in that place of exclusion, while the remainder all return to the first position.

The combinations now visible in the abecedarium will be as follows:-

A	A	a	a	а	a	a	а
В		В	В	<b>b</b>	ь	b	b
C	C	$\mathbf{C}$	$\mathbf{C}$	$\mathbf{C}$	$\mathbf{C}$	c	$\boldsymbol{c}$
D	d	D	d	$\mathbf{D}$	d	D	d

They correspond exactly to those previously obtained from the same premises (see § 24), except that each combination of A, B, C, a, b, c is repeated with D and d. If we now want a description of the term A, we press the subject key A, and all disappear except

$$A B C D$$
,  $A B C d$ ,

which contain the information that A is always associated with B and with C, but that it may appear with D or without D, the conditions of the problem having given us no information on this point. The series of consistent combinations is restored at any time by the full-stop key, the contradictory ones remaining excluded.

43. Any other subject key or succession of subject keys being pressed gives us the description of the corresponding terms. Thus the key c gives us two combinations, a b c D, a b c d, informing us that the absence of C is always accompanied by the absence of A and B. Of b we get the description

whence we learn that the absence of B always causes the absence of A, but that C and D are indifferently absent or present.

44. We can at any time add a new condition to the problem by pressing the full stop to bring the combinations as yet possible into the first position, and then impressing the new condition on the keys as before. Let this condition be

The effect will obviously be to remove such C d combinations as yet remain into the fourth position, leaving only five:

A a a a a B B B b b b C C C c c C D D D D d

hence we learn that A, B, and C are all D; that B, C, and D may or may not be A; that what is not D is not A, not B and not C; and so on. The conditions of this problem form what would be called a Sorites in the old logic, and we have not only obtained its conclusion A is D, but have performed a complete analysis of its conditions, and the inferences which may be drawn from those conditions.

- 45. The problem being supposed complete, we press the Finis key, which differs from all the others in moving two levers, one of which (fig. 13) is of the ordinary character and returns any rods which may happen to be in the second position into the first, while the other (fig. 8) has a much longer radius, is moved by a cord or flexible wire p, passing over a pulley q and through a perforation r in the flat board which forms the lever itself, in this case a lever of the second order. This broad lever sweeps the rods from the fourth position as well as any which may be in the third into the first, and together with the other lever (fig. 13) it reduces the whole of the rods to the neutral position, and renders the machine, as it were, a tabula rasa, upon which an entirely new set of conditions may be impressed independently of previous ones. Its office thus is to obliterate the effects of former problems.
- 46. When several of the letter keys on the subject side only or the predicate side only are pressed in succession, the effect is to select the combinations possessing all the letters marked on the keys. Thus if the keys A, B, C be pressed there will remain in the abecedarium only the combinations A B C D and A B C d; and if the key D be now pressed, the latter combination will disappear, and A B C D will alone remain. The effect will be exactly the same whatever the order in which the keys are pressed, and if they be pressed simultaneously there will be no difference in the result. The machine thus perfectly represents the commutative character of logical symbols which Mr. Boole has dwelt upon in pp. 29–30 of the 'Laws of Thought.' What I have called the Law of Simplicity of logical symbols, expressed by the formula AA=A*, is also perfectly fulfilled in the machine; for if the same key be pressed two or more times in succession, there will be no more effect than when it is pressed once. Thus the succession of keys A A C B B A C would have merely the effect of A B C. This applies also to the predicate keys, but not of course to an alternation of subject and predicate keys.
  - 47. To impress upon the machine the condition

## A B is C D,

or whatever combines the properties of A and B combines the properties of C D, we strike in succession the subject keys A and B, the Copula, the predicate keys C and D and the Full stop. The subject keys throw into the second position both the a combinations

^{*} Pure Logic, p. 15. Boone's 'Laws of Thought,' p. 31.

and the b's; the predicate keys, out of the remaining A B's, throw the c's and d's into the third position; and the full stop completes the separation of the consistent and contradictory combinations in the usual manner.

48. It yet remains for us to consider a proposition with a disjunctive term in subject, predicate, or both members. For such propositions the conjunction keys are requisite, that adjoining the subject keys (fig. 4) for the subject, and the other for the predicate. These keys act in opposition to each other, and each is opposed, again, to its corresponding letter keys. Thus while the subject keys act on levers at the back of the machine (Plate XXXIII. fig. 3), the subject conjunction key acts on the lever r in front, while the predicate conjunction key t is at the back. These levers are shown in their full size in figs. 10 & 12, and are seen to differ from all the other levers in having the edge v moving on small wire hinges u in such a way that it can exert force upwards but not downwards. The lever can thus raise the rods; but in case it should strike a pin in returning, the edge yields and passes the pin without moving the rod. In connexion with these levers each rod has two pins (figs. 1 & 2) at a distance of only  $\frac{1}{2}$  an inch, and the peculiar effect of these pins will be gathered from figs. 10 & 12 (Plate XXXIV.). Thus if we press in succession the predicate keys

#### A or B,

the key A will throw the a's into the third position. The conjunction key will now act upon the a pins of the A's and move them into the second position, and at the same time upon the  $\beta$  pins of the a's and return them into the first position. The key B now selects from the a's those which are b's, and puts them into the third position ready for exclusion by the full stop, which will also join to the aB's still remaining in the first position the A's which were temporarily put out of the way in the second position. Should there be, however, another alternative, as in the term

#### A or B or C,

the conjunction key would be again pressed, which gives the a b's a new chance by returning them to the first, and the key C selects only the a b c's for exclusion. The action would be exactly similar with a fourth alternative.

49. The subject conjunction key is similar but opposite in action. If the subject key A be pressed it throws the  $\alpha$ 's into the second position; the conjunction key then acts upon the  $\alpha$  pin of the  $\alpha$ 's returning them to the first position, and also upon the  $\beta$  pin of the A's, sending them to a temporary seclusion in the third position. The key B would now select the  $\alpha$  b's for the second position; the conjunction key again pressed would return them, and add the  $\alpha$  B's to those in the third, and so on. The final result would be that those combinations excluded from all the alternatives would be found in the second position, while those included in one or more alternatives would be partly in the first and partly in the third positions.

In the progress of a proposition the copula key would now have to be pressed, and when the subject is a disjunctive term its action is essential. It has the effect (fig. 9)

of threwing any combinations which are in the third back into the first. It thus joins together all the combinations included in one or more alternatives of the subject, and prepares them for the due action of the predicate keys.

50. It must be carefully observed that any doubly universal proposition of the form

or, in another form of expression,

$$A = B$$

can only be impressed upon the logical machine in the form of two ordinary propositions;

all A's are B's,

and

all B's are A's.

The first of these excludes such A's as may be not-B's; the second excludes such B's as may be not-A's.

If we impress upon the keys of the machine the six propositions expressing the complete identity of A, B, C, and D, it is obvious that there would remain only the two combinations

the identity of the positive terms involving the identity also of their negatives.

The premise

A or B=C or D

would require to be read

A or B is C or D, C or D is A or B.

- 51. To give some notion of the degree of facility with which logical problems may be solved with the machine, I will adduce the logical problem employed by Boole to illustrate the powers of his system at p. 118 of the 'Laws of Thought.'
- "Suppose that an analysis of the properties of a particular class of substances has led to the following general conclusions, viz.:—
- "1st. That wherever the properties A and B are combined, either the property C, or the property D, is present also; but they are not jointly present.
- "2nd. That wherever the properties B and C are combined, the properties A and D are either both present with them, or both absent.
- "3rd. That wherever the properties A and B are both absent, the properties C and D are both absent also; and vice versâ, where the properties C and D are both absent, A and B are both absent also."

This somewhat complex problem is solved in Boole's work by a very difficult and lengthy series of eliminations, developments, and algebraic multiplications. Two or three pages are required to indicate the successive stages of the solution, and the details of the algebraic work would probably occupy many more pages. Upon the machine the problem is worked by the successive pressure of the following keys:—

1st. A, B, Copula, C, d, Conjunction, c, D, Full stop.
2nd. B, C, Copula, A, D, Conjunction, α, d, Full stop.
3rd. α, b, Copula, c, d, Full stop.
c, d, Copula, α, b, Full stop.

There will then be found to remain in the abecedarium the following combinations:

On pressing the subject key A, the A combinations printed above in the left-hand column will alone remain, and on examining them they yield the same conclusion as BOOLE's equation (p. 120), namely, "Wherever the property A is present, there either C is present and B absent, or C is absent."

Pressing the full-stop key to restore the a combinations, and then the keys b, C, we have the two combinations

from which we read Boole's conclusion, p. 120, "Wherever the property C is present, and the property B absent, there the property A is present." In a similar manner the other conclusions given by Boole in p. 129 can be drawn from the abecedarium.

- 52. It is to be allowed that a certain mental process of interpreting and reducing to simple terms the indications of the combinations is required, for which no mechanical provision is made in the machine as at present constructed, but an exactly similar mental process is required in the Indirect Process of Inference, as stated in my 'Pure Logic,' pp. 44, 45; and equivalent processes are necessary in Boole's mathematical system. The machine does not therefore supersede the use of mental agency altogether, but it nevertheless supersedes it in most important steps of the process.
- 53. This mechanical process of inference proceeds by the continual selection and classification of the conceivable combinations into three or four groups. It should be noticed that in Boole's system the same groups are indicated by certain quasi-mathematical symbols as follows:—

the coefficient  $\frac{0}{0}$  indicates an excluded combination

It is exceedingly questionable whether there is any analogy at all between the significations of these symbols in mathematics and those which Boole imposed upon them in logic. In reality the symbol 1 denotes in Boole's logic inclusion of a combination under a term, and 0 exclusion. Accordingly  $\frac{1}{0}$  indicates that the combination is included in the subject and not in the predicate, and is therefore inconsistent with the proposition,

and ? indicates inclusion in the predicate and exclusion from the subject of an equational proposition or identity, from which also results inconsistency. Inclusion in both terms is indicated by \{\frac{1}{2}\}, and exclusion from both \{\frac{0}{2}\}, in which case the combination is consistent with the proposition.

- 54. To the reader of the preceding paper it will be evident that mechanism is capable of replacing for the most part the action of thought required in the performance of logical deduction. Having once written down the conditions or premises of an argument in a clear and logical form, we have but to press a succession of keys in the order corresponding to the terms, conjunctions, and other parts of the propositions, in order to effect a complete analysis of the argument. Mental agency is required only in interpreting correctly the grammatical structure of the premises, and in gathering from the letters of the abecedarium the purport of the reply. The intermediate process of deduction is effected in a material form. The parts of the machine embody the conditions of correct thinking; the rods are just as numerous as the Law of Duality requires in order that every conceivable union of qualities may have its representative; no rod breaks the Law of Contradiction by representing at the same time terms that are necessarily inconsistent; and it has been pointed out that the peculiar characters of logical symbols expressed in the Laws of Simplicity and Commutativeness are also observed in the action of the keys and levers. The machine is thus the embodiment of a true symbolic method or Calculus. The representative rods must be classified, selected, or rejected by the reading of a proposition in a manner exactly answering to that in which a reasoning mind should treat its ideas. At every step in the progress of a problem, therefore, the abecedarium necessarily indicates the proper condition of a mind exempt from mistake.
- 55. I may add a few words to deprecate the notion that I attribute much practical utility to this mechanical device. I believe, indeed, that it may be used with much advantage in the logical class-room, for which purpose it is more convenient than the logical abacus which I have already employed in this manner. The logical machine may become a powerful means of instruction at some future time by presenting to a body of students a clear and visible analysis of logical problems of any degree of complexity, and rendering each step of its solution plain. Its employment, however, in this way must for the present be restricted, or almost entirely prevented, by the predominance of the ancient Aristotelian logic, and the almost puerile character of the current logical examples.
- 56. The chief importance of the machine is of a purely theoretical kind. It demonstrates in a convincing manner the existence of an all-embracing system of Indirect Inference, the very existence of which was hardly suspected before the appearance of Boole's logical works. I have often deplored the fact that though these works were published in the years 1847 and 1854, the current handbooks, and even the most extensive treatises on logic, have remained wholly unaffected thereby*. It would be possible

Professor Bain's treatise on 'Logic,' which has been published since this paper was written, is an exception.
In the first Part, which treats of Deductive Logic, pp. 190-207, he gives a description and review of Boole's

to search the works of two very different but leading thinkers, Mr. J. S. Mill and Sir W. Hamilton, without meeting the name of Dr. Boole, or the slightest hint of his great logical discoveries; and other eminent logicians, such as Professor De Morgan or Archbishop Thomson, barely refer to his works in a few appreciative sentences. This unfortunate neglect is partly due to the great novelty of Boole's views, which prevents them from fitting readily into the current logical doctrines. It is partly due also to the obscure, difficult, and, in many important points, the mistaken form in which Boole put forth his system; and my object will be fully accomplished should this machine be considered to demonstrate the existence and illustrate the nature of a very simple and obvious method of Indirect Inference of which Dr. Boole was substantially the discoverer.

Mathematical System; but it is significant that he omits the process of mathematical deduction where it is in the least complex, and merely quotes Boole's conclusions. Thus we have the anomalous result that in a treatise on Logical Deduction, the reader has to look elsewhere for processes which, according to Boole, must form the very basis of Deduction.

# Note to § 7.

It has been pointed out to me by Mr. White, and has also been noticed in 'Nature' (March 10th, 1870, vol. i. p. 487), that in the year 1851, Mr. Alfred Smee, F.R.S., the Surgeon of the Bank of England, published a work called 'The Process of Thought adapted to words and language, together with a description of the Relational and Differential Machines' (Longmans), which alludes to the mechanical performance of thought.

After perusing this work, which was unknown to me when writing the paper, it cannot be doubted that Mr. Smee contemplated the representation by mechanism of certain mental processes. His ideas on this subject are characterized by much of the ingenuity which he is well known to have displayed in other branches of science. But it will be found on examination that his designs have no connexion with mine. His represent the mental states or operations of memory and judgment, whereas my machine performs logical inference. So far as I can ascertain from the obscure descriptions and imperfect drawings given by Mr. Smee, his Relational Machine is a kind of Mechanical Dictionary, so constructed that if one word be proposed its relations to all other words will be mechanically exhibited. The Differential Machine was to be employed for comparing ideas and ascertaining their agreement and difference. It might be roughly likened to a patent lock, the opening of which proves the agreement of the tumblers and the key.

It does not appear, again, that the machines were ever constructed, although Mr. Smes made some attempts to reduce his designs to practice. Indeed he almost allows that the Relational Machine is a purely visionary existence when he mentions that it would, if constructed, occupy an area as large as London.—October 10, 1870.

# XXIII. On the Fossil Mammals of Australia.—Part III. Diprotodon australis, OWEN. By Professor OWEN. FR.S. &c.

Received December 10, 1869,-Read February 3, 1870.

§ 1. Introduction.—In a letter dated May 8th, 1838, addressed to Sir Thomas Mitchell, F.G.S., Surveyor-General of Australia, giving results of an examination of a series of Fossil Remains from caves in 'Wellington Valley,' and published in his 'Three Expeditions into the Interior of Eastern Australia, vol. ii. 8vo. 1838, one of the specimens was described as follows.

"Genus Diprotodon. I apply this name to the genus of Mammalia, represented by the anterior extremity of the right ramus, lower jaw, with a single large procumbent incisor (IX.), fig. 1, pl. 31. This is the specimen conjectured to have belonged to the Dugong, but the incisor resembles the corresponding tooth of the Wombat in its enamelled structure and position (see fig. 2, pl 31, and a section of the Wombat's teeth in fig. 7. pl. 30) It differs, however, in the quadrilateral figure of its transverse section, in which it corresponds with the inferior incisors of the Hippopotamus To this Diprotodon, or to some distinct species of equal size, have belonged the fragments of bones of extremities marked X, X a, X b" (p. 362)

I reproduce the original figures (Woodcut, figs. 1 & 1 a) representing the specimen of half the natural size, and the section of the incisor of the full size, on which the genus was founded, but which specimen I now know to be that of a young individual.

Extraordinary as seemed the magnitude of the beast which this tooth indicated, at a period when the largest known mammal of Australia was a Kangaroo, it gave only half the size of the full-grown Diprotodon australis.

In ignorance of this fact I was led astray by the first evidences (femur and molar teeth) 1 a

of the mature animal which were transmitted to me from freshwater deposits in another and remote locality of Australia; and, for a short time, I believed them to belong to a

Fig 1

* Annals and Magazine of Natural History, No. 71, for May 1843.

Proboscidian, referring them, in 1843, on the authority of a drawing of part of a jaw and teeth transmitted to me by Sir Thomas Mitchell. to the Dinotherian section of

that order *.

But I was not long under this delusion, and in 1844 realized grounds for the following rectification:—"Having since received specimens of portions of lower jaws with teeth identical in structure with the fragment figured in my first communication to the 'Annals of Natural History' (p. 9, figs. 2 & 3), I find that the reference of that portion of tooth to the genus Dinotherium was premature and erroneous. The extinct species to which it belonged does indeed combine molar teeth like those of Dinotherium with two large incisive tusks in the lower jaw; but those tusks incline upwards instead of downwards, and are identical in form and structure with the tusk from one of the bonecaves of Wellington Valley, described by me in Sir Thomas Mitchell's 'Three Expeditions into the Interior of Australia,' vol. ii. 1838, p. 362, pl. 31, figs. 1 & 2, as indicative of a new genus and species of gigantic mammalian animal, to which I gave the name of Diprotodon australis"*.

Of no extinct animal of which a passing glimpse, as it were, had thus been caught, did I ever feel more eager to acquire fuller knowledge than of this huge Marsupial. No chase can equal the excitement of that in which, bit by bit, and year after year, one captures the elements for reconstructing the entire creature of which a single tooth or fragment of bone may have initiated the quest; in the course of which one finally realizes, with more or less exactitude, the picture which the laws of correlation had led one to frame of an animal which may have passed out of existence long ages ago †.

Appeals to friendly correspondents in Australia had met, in 1845, with so much success as enabled me to give the entire dental formula of the lower jaw, viz. i, 1, c, 0, m, 5; =6: and also to indicate a second genus of large herbivorous Marsupial (*Nototherium*) only inferior in size to *Diprotodon*.

Further evidences fell in at longer intervals, and I was occasionally flattered with the hope of obtaining an entire skeleton, as by the subjoined extract from my old ally in researches of Australian Zoology, Dr. George Bennett, F.L.S., of Sydney, New South Wales.

Copy of part of a letter from George Bennett, Esq., F.L.S., dated Sydney, September 18th, 1863, referring to a skeleton of Diprotodon.

- ".... I have some expectation of getting you more of the bones of the Diprotodon; my son George, who is now on a station in Queensland, writes me as follows:—'I have been along the bank of a creek called 'King's Creek,' and searched it very minutely: I have found several bones, and also the place where the whole of a skeleton is imbedded in the ground. The bones are immense, some of the vertebræ are about 12 or 14 inches in length. I have now one of the smaller vertebræ, and it measures 6 inches in diameter.
  - * Annals and Magazine of Natural History for October 1844.
- + I hazarded the expression, in 1843, of such an ideal picture, as "of a heavy terrestrial quadruped, like the Mastodon, with thick and stout extremities adapted to the support and progression of a massive frame."—Annals and Magazine of Natural History, vol. ix. p. 332.
- ‡ "Report on the Extinct Mammals of Australia, and on the Geographical Distribution of Pliocene and Postpliocene Mammals in general," Reports of the British Association, 8vo, 1845.

The head of the same skeleton was sent some years ago to Sydney. The shepherd who discovered the head is here still, and it was he who showed me the place. When I can get time and men in that direction I will dig it out and then forward it by degrees to you.'

"Since I received this account," proceeds Dr. Bennett, "I have seen Mr. W. B. Tooth, the owner of the station, and he informed me that he has a large blade-bone, and that when he visits the station and has the men at leisure, he will gradually dig out the skeleton as perfect as possible and forward it to me. Mr. T. left on the 15th of this month for the station. I suggested to him to preserve every bone however small, which he has promised to do. On my receiving only a few at a time I will immediately transmit them to you, as I expect it will take some time to excavate the whole skeleton, as men cannot be spared at all times from a large sheep station."

I have long (perhaps too long) deferred entering upon the work of the present communication, hoping to complete the materials for the entire reconstruction of the *Diprotodon*. But the quick lapse of time, its inevitable effect on mind and body, and the venial impatience of the possessors of nondescript bones of the great Marsupial, combine to put an end to delay, and I proceed, therefore, to the description of the parts of this extinct animal at present at my command.

§ 2. Skull.—It is probable that the specimen in the British Museum (Plate XXXV. figs. 1, 2, 3), purchased at the sale of a series of Australian Fossils sent to London from Sydney by a Mr. Boyd, and stated to have been obtained from the bed of a creek at Gowrie, near Drayton, Darling Downs, Queensland*, may be the "head" referred to in the letter above cited.

The chief dimensions of this skull are given in the 'Table of Admeasurements' of parts of the skeleton of *Diprotodon*, p. 573.

The skull shows the general marsupial character of that part in its degree of depression or flattening from above downward, in the small proportion devoted to receive the brain, and in the large proportion given to the olfactory chamber and precranial air-sinuses.

The occipital region (Plate XXXV. fig. 1, s, fig. 3), instead of being vertical, as in *Macropus* (ib. fig. 5) and most existing Marsupials, slopes forward from the terminal condyles at an angle of 45° with the basicranial axis.

The basioccipital (ib. fig. 3, 1) forms by a thick border convex vertically, slightly concave transversely, the lower part of the rim of the foramen magnum (ib. 0) an inch in extent, separating in the same degree the lower ends of the occipital condyles (ib. 2, 2). These ends may be contributed by the basioccipital element, but the sutures between it and the exoccipitals are obliterated.

• "All the above fossil remains are from King's Creek, Darling Downs, being the same locality whence the entire skull of the *Diprotodon* was obtained some years ago."—W. S. Maclear, in 'Report on Donations to the Australian Museum during August, 1857.' See also "Owen, On *Nototherium*," in Proceedings of the Geological Society of London, March 1858, p. 158.

The basiccipital, as it advances, expands and gains a thickness of nearly an inch of compact and minutely cellular bony tissue.

The occipital condyles (Plate XXXV. fig. 3, 2), an inch apart below and 21 inches apart above, have their lower extremity obtuse, about an inch broad, curved inward and forward; they expand as they ascend, diverging to a breadth of 2 inches at their upper ends. The vertical convexity of each condyle describes a semicircle, the extent of the articular surface following this curve being 6 inches. The outer border is longer than the inner one, so that the upper margin of the condyle rises obliquely from within outward. narrow lower ends of the condyles rise or project more abruptly from the intervening basioccipital border of the foramen magnum than in Macropus. Each condyle is here impressed by a rough surface or shallow notch at its inner surface, indicative of tendinal insertion. A low narrow ridge extends from the outer part of the lower end of the condyle, forward, and may indicate the lateral extent of the basioccipital at this part. The transverse convexity of the condyle is greater, less angular, especially at the lower half, than in Macropus. The oblique base or upper end of the condyle projects proportionally more from the non-articular part of the exoccipital. A similar better definition or greater prominence characterizes the outer margin of the condyle; the inner margin forming the sides of the foramen magnum is sharper and better defined than in Macropus: these borders are also less divergent as they rise. The inner, non-articular side of the condyle is slightly concave, rough, subtuberculate. The outer border of the articular part is sharp, and projects over the inner non-articular side of the condyle. In their posterior terminal position and degree of prominence the occipital condyles of Diprotodon resemble those in Dinotherium.

The foramen magnum (ib. fig. 3, o) is bounded above by the arched obtuse border of the exoccipitals, which bones rapidly gain thickness as they extend from the foramen. I assume that the exoccipitals met above the foramen, as in many Marsupials; or, if not meeting, had their interspace filled by the superoccipital, as in Phascolarctos: they left here no notch, such as one sees in Macropus Bennettii. The upper border of the foramen magnum is non-emarginate in Macropus major; but it is relatively of greater extent in that Kangaroo, through the greater divergence of the condyles, and it is less arched or concave transversely than in Diprotodon. Two precondyloid foramina open upon each exoccipital, opposite the junction of the lower and middle thirds of the condyle, from which the hindmost foramen is distant 9 lines, the next 1 inch 2 lines; each foramen is about 4 lines in diameter. An irregular or tubercular ridge curves over the fossa of the precondyloid foramina, expanding to be lost on the paroccipital. This process (ib. figs. 1 & 3, 4) is tuberous, thick, and short; it is not so much produced as in Macropus.

The foramen magnum is more evasé than in Macropus, i. e. it expands funnel-wise to its outlet, backward, and especially above and below; it has more the character of a short (neural) canal than a foramen, through the antero-posterior extent of its wall or rim. It is transversely elliptical, 2 inches 5 lines in long, 1 inch 3 lines in short, dia-

meters. It opens directly backward, the plane of its outlet being vertical. On each side of the inlet of the foramen magnum a wide and deep impression of a sinus curves downward to the jugular foramen at the inner side of the base of the paroccipital. The inner openings of the precondyloid canal are in a slight depression on each side the foramen magnum, a little nearer together than the outlets.

In the almost entire skull the upper border of the foramen magnum and contiguous part of the superoccipital surface are wanting. In the part of the occipital of another skull that surface is preserved to an extent of  $2\frac{1}{3}$  inches in advance of the upper border of the foramen, and for a breadth of 6 inches. This surface slopes forward from the foramen and condyles as in the entire skull; it is externally smooth and transversely undulating, showing a shallow medial concavity between two broad gentle convexities, which fall outwardly into concavities bounded by the oblique bases of the condyles. Nearly the lower half of the superoccipital surface is preserved in the fragment: the upper half, present in the skull, shows a strong medial vertical ridge (Plate XXXV. fig. 3, s), and is bounded above by the ridge between the superoccipital (s) and parietals (7), continued outwardly upon the mastoids (s). The cranial air-sinuses are continued backward into the super- and ex-occipitals, not into the basioccipital. On each side the mid-ridge (s) is a shorter vertical ridge. The mastoid (s) makes a much less projection than the paroccipital (4); it is confluent above with the petrosal, as in other Marsupials; not preserving its primitive distinction from that sense-capsule as in the Babyroussa*.

The brain being small in Marsupials, and the disproportionate smallness of its case to the rest of the skull increasing, as in other natural groups of mammals, with the general bulk of the species in such group, this character is a striking one in the skull of Diprotodon. Like its carnivorous contemporary the Thylacoleo†, the brain-case makes no convexity or out-swelling into the temporal fossæ; the inner as well as the outer and hind walls of these long and large lateral vacuities are concave, and form parts of a general though not uniform excavation.

The broad and low triangular superoccipital surface, strongly sloping forward as it rises from the condyles, contracts above to its apex, and is continuous there with a (sagittal) ridge of the coalesced parietals (ib. fig. 1, 7) extending forward to the inter-orbital region. There the upper surface of the cranium begins to expand, and to swell into a pair of low convexities (ib. fig. 1, 11) which roof over the frontal sinuses. The outer wall of this pneumatic part of the cranium has been crushed down by posthumous pressure or injury in the entire skull.

The nasals (Plate XXXV. figs. 1, 2, 1s), in continuing forward from the frontals the upper line of the skull, rise gently toward their terminations, which again curve downward, giving a sigmoid contour to that part of the cranial profile in a degree peculiar to the present species. The vertical diameter of the facial part of the skull at the ter-

^{*} OWEN, 'Anatomy of Vertebrates,' 8vo, vol. ii. p. 469; and 'Catalogue of the Osteology, in the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons,' 4to, no. 3345, p. 557.

[†] Philosophical Transactions, 1866, Plate 1.

mination of the nasals rather exceeds that of the cranial part at the parietal region; it is also greater than the beginning of the facial part of the skull in advance of the orbits and molar alveoli, whence there is a gain both in depth and breadth as it approaches the anterior terminations; but the uniformity of this diameter of the skull along the medial line, from the superoccipital forward to the premaxillo-nasal part, viewed sideways or in direct profile, is a remarkable characteristic of *Diprotodon*.

The part of the maxillary (Plate XXXV. fig. 1, 2) lodging the molar series of teeth (d 3-m 3) breaks the lower line of the profile, descending below it along the middle third of the length of the skull. The zygomatic arch is deep, long, but proportionally less convex outwardly, or less expanded, than in Thylacoleo. Its base (ib. figs. 1 & 3, 27) seems as if continued from the whole side of the occipital plane, contracting rapidly at the upper border as the arch sweeps outward and forward; the superoccipital crest being continued into the upper border of the arch, and this apparently without break or abrupt rise in any part of that border*. The frame of the orifice of the "meatus auditorius" (ib. fig. 1, 28) projects downward from the hind part of the lower border of the base of the zygoma, indicative of the tympanic. Immediately in front of this descends the postglenoid process (a) of the squamosal, and in advance of this is a second downward projection or convexity due to the "eminentia articularis" (b), which is here, as in Marsupials, a process of the malar (26). From this part the lower border of the zygoma runs forward nearly parallel to the upper one, but with a slight concavity, as far as the maxillary element of the zygoma, which sends down a strong, moderately long, obtuse, subcompressed masseteric process (ib. 21)—a cranial feature which is peculiar to herbivorous Marsupials †.

The orbit (ib. fig. 1, r) is a relatively small vertically oval cavity, communicating widely behind with the temporal fossa (ib. 7). The external nostril (ib. figs. 1 & 2, n) is terminal, subvertical, rather expanded, and divided in great part by an upward extension of the medial nasal plate of each premaxillary (ib. figs. 1 & 2,2r), which plates, being in close contact, form the lower part of a long "septum narium" at the outlet of the nasal cavity, recalling its condition in the extinct Rhinoceros tichorhinus. There is a narrow and short descending ridge at the coadapted medial borders of the nasals, which seems to have been continued into the septum by cartilage rather than by bone. I have alluded to the analogy which the structure of the external nostrils in Diprotodon suggest to those of an extinct Pachyderm, but the truer and closer resemblance is found in the Marsupial group. The cavity of the nose is divided by a complete bony septum to within one-fourth of the outer opening in Macropus and Phascolomys‡, advancing, in one species of Wombat, as in Nototherium, nearer to that outlet.

^{*} Some mutilation of the hind part of this upper border in both zygomata begets reserve in definitely pronouncing as to its normal outline.

⁺ The descending masseteric process in Glyptodonts, Sloths, and Megatherioids is formed by the malar bone exclusively. Owen, 'Anatomy of Vertebrates,' vol. ii. p. 405, figs. 273, 274, 26, a.

^{‡ &}quot;On the Osteology of the Marsupialia," Zoological Transactions, vol. ii. p. 391. Anatomy of Vertebrates, vol. ii. p. 348.

The base of the masseteric process of the maxillary (Plate XXXV. fig. 1, 21') is a vertical outstanding ridge, beginning below about an inch above the fore part of the last molar alveolus, or above the interspace between the last and penultimate sockets, according to the age of the individual. It becomes thinned as it rises and projects, and then suddenly expands to form the fore part of the zygoma and to send down the process. This is slightly twisted upon itself outward and backward, concave on the hinder and inner surface, convex at the opposite surface; the fore part of the vertical base of the zygomatic process of the maxillary is smooth and concave.

The alveolar border of the maxillary contracts and terminates obtusely behind the last molar (m 3, Plate XXXVIII. fig. 2). It articulates with the palatine, leaving a hinder angular interval into which the lower and fore part of the pterygoid is wedged. The outer part of the concave hind border of the bony palate curves from the pterygoid inward and forward to opposite the mid-division of the last molar: the palatines appear to complete, with the maxillaries, the hind part of the roof of the mouth, without leaving a vacuity.

Portions of the maxillary and palatine of two other individuals are equally without indications of any wide postpalatal vacuity opposite the interspace between the last and penultimate molars. In advance of this interval the bony palate, due here to the maxillaries exclusively, extends so as to give a breadth of the palate between the penultimate molars of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches.

Anterior to the masseteric process the outer alveolar wall of the maxillary is undulated by the vertical prominences, indicative of the large and thick roots of the molar teeth. The alveolar border contracts as the teeth advance in position and decrease in size, and becomes a ridge anterior to the first molar in place (usually the second of the series ( $d \cdot d$ ) in full-sized Diprotodons). This antalveolar or diastemal ridge (Plate XXXV. fig. 1, x) curves upward and inward, approaching its fellow, then arches downward and terminates at the back part of the socket of the third incisor, where the maxillo-premaxillary suture begins. At the wider hind part of the interval, between the antalveolar ridges, there seems to have opened an anterior or prepalatal canal leading to the fore part of the nasal cavity, the orifice being elongate. In advance of this the deep and narrow channel between the fore part of the diastemata is entire. Above these ridges, the outer plates of the maxillaries swell outward as they ascend to form the lateral walls of the antorbital part of the nasal chamber, arching inward again above to join the nasal bones ( 15 ).

The maxillo-nasal suture seems to have a relatively greater extent than in *Phascolomys*; but owing to the short facial or antorbital part of the skull, as compared with *Macropus*, it is of much less relative extent than in that genus. The antorbital foramen (ib. figs. 1 & 2, 21) is longest vertically.

Each premaxillary (Plate XXXV. figs. 1 & 2, 22) is deeply excavated by three alveoli, the foremost the longest, largest, and most curved. The inner walls of these alveoli rise as a strong vertical crest (22) dividing the lower part of the nasal outlet. The incisive alveoli succeed each other from before backward; and, owing to its superior size,

The outer border of the first projects further from the midline than does that of the last. Viewed from the palatal aspect the two series of incisive alveoli converge backward, instead of forward as in the Kangaroo and most other quadrupeds. The malar bone (Plate XXXV. fig. 1, 26) ascends from its junction with the maxillary to join the lacrymal (78) at the fore part of the orbit, by a very narrow curved strip or process; its main body is suspended in the zygomatic arch, of which it constitutes the anterior half, and the lower part, as far as, and including, the "eminentia articularis." The suture between the squamosal and malar elements of the zygoma is almost straight, extending from behind the orbit obliquely backward and downward to the glenoid cavity, of which articular surface the malar "eminentia," here more flattened than usual, contributes the fore part. This articulation (ib. fig. 4) is most extended transversely to the skull's axis; its hinder half (ib. ib. 27) is concave from before backward, its fore part (ib. ib. 26) convex, but becomes flattened or a little hollowed on the "eminentia."

The lacrymal (ib. fig. 1, 73) is perforated by the canal, marsupial-wise, in advance of and external to the orbital cavity.

§ 3. Mandible.—A transversely extended subconvex condyle (Plate XLII. figs. 3 & 4) adapts itself to the cavity offered by the base of the zygoma. The condyle is 5½ inches in transverse extent, 1 inch 9 lines from before backward; it is, in that direction, most convex. The condyloid process is supported by a three-sided neck quickly contracting to 1 inch 9 lines in transverse diameter (ib. fig. 3, n); it is broadest and flattened behind, contracted in front to the ridge-like beginning of the "coronoid" plate (ib. figs. 2 & 4, r), which extends forward near the outer side of the neck. The condyle is more extended inward (ib. fig. 4, c) than outward (ib. ib. c') of this advancing vertical coronoid plate. The flat surface at the back part of the neck is continued into a suddenly expanded hinder facet of the ascending ramus, formed by the outward production of the hind wall or boundary of the outer depression for the insertion of the temporal muscle, and by the inward production (Plate XXXV. fig. 3, e) of the hind wall or boundary of the deep inner concavity of the ascending ramus, where opens the large entry (Plate XLII. fig. 2, o) of the dental canal. Below this orifice the concavity extends downward through the concomitant extension of the inner plate or hind wall to the lower border of the horizontal ramus, where it gradually subsides. The hind wall of the outer depression of the ascending ramus (Plate XXXV. fig. 1, e) follows the contour of that of the inner depression, but sooner subsides; the interspace is a continuation of the broad hind flattened facet which, as it descends, gets a more outward aspect. Beyond the subsidence of the outer plate it gives the appearance of a bending inward of the angle of the jaw (ib. fig. 2, e'), and that to a degree which is characteristic of Marsupials. outer or crotaphyte depression of the ascending ramus (Plate XXXV. fig. 1, f) gradually gains the ordinary level of the outer surface of the horizontal ramus, and does not undermine the ascending branch to communicate with the inner concavity as in Macropus. In the shape of the condyle Diprotodon resembles Phascolomys, in which the intercommunicating canal is much reduced.

The anterior border of the ascending ramus is straight and subvertical; it is thickened at its lower part to be continued into the convex outswelling of the horizontal ramus outside the last molar (Plate XXXV. fig. 1, m 3), a distance of an inch intervening between the alveolus of this molar and the convexity rising and thinning into the fore part of the coronoid plate (f). The alveolar border is continued into an obtuse ridge or prominence, 2 inches behind the last alveolus; from which prominence the ridge subsides and expands, retrograding to form the internal border of the entry of the dental canal (ib. d).

The horizontal ramus gains slightly in depth as it advances from the last to the first molar socket (d 3). Two and a half inches below this socket, and a little in advance, is the vertically elliptic outlet of the dental canal (ib. m). Below this orifice the ramus bulges out into a rather rough tumefaction, then slopes and contracts upward and forward to form the socket of the huge procumbent lower incisor ( $\ddot{i}$ ). From the socket of d 3 the alveolar border sinks and expands into the upper part of the socket of the incisor. The under border of the horizontal ramus is smoothly and broadly convex transversely. The inner surface sinks sheer from the openings of the molar alveoli, and curves inward below the anterior ones to the symphysis (Plate XLI. fig. 2, s, s). The fore part of the mandible below the incisive alveoli, expanding to the tuberous outswellings abovementioned, has a broad, subquadrate form, recalling the shape of that part in the Hip-popotamus (Plate XXXV. fig. 2, t, t).

The symphysis (Plates XLI., XLII. fig. 2, s, s) begins behind, at a line dropped vertically from the front lobe of the third molar  $(m\ 1)$ ; it is 6 inches in length, 4 inches in depth in the full-grown animal. It gains in vertical direction more than in length during the growth of the mandible, with reference apparently to the provision of a sufficient lodgment of the progressively increasing incisive tusk. (Compare Plate XLII. fig. 2, s, s with Plate XLII. fig. 2, s, s.)

The large size of the dental canal exposed by the posterior fracture of the ramus of another mutilated mandible indicates the ample supply of vessels and nerves which minister to the growth and nutrition of the incisive tusk; the depth of the symphysis of the jaw corresponds with the tusks, which it helps to support; contributing to the required strength for the operations of those eroding implements, with space for the deep implantation and for the lodgment of the large persistent matrix of each tusk (Plate XLII. fig. 5). The direction of the symphysis is oblique, from below upward and forward; its upper margin is nearly straight, its lower one convex; the rough articular surface stands out a very little way from the vertical plane of the inner surface of the ramus.

In comparing the symphysial part of the jaw of Diprotodon with that of any other large quadruped carrying a single incisor in each ramus there are well-marked differences. The symphysis in the Sumatran Rhinoceros and in Acerotherium is less deep and is proportionately broader; the great length of that part in the Mastodon longirostris, and its deflection in Dinotherium more conspicuously differentiate them. In the remark-

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ably large proportion of the symphysis in Diprotodon to the size of its molar teeth there are no quadrupeds which so nearly resemble it as the Notothere and the Wombat; but in this existing Marsupial the symphysial part of the jaw is broader in proportion to its depth. The long and narrow symphysial junction in the Kangaroo is peculiar for the yielding movements allowed to the rami upon each other, which is betrayed by those of the long procumbent depressed incisors in the living animal*.

§ 4. Dentition.—The dental formula of Diprotodon is:  $-i\frac{3-s}{1-i-1}$ ,  $c\frac{s-s}{s-s}=28$ . Of the upper incisors the first or anterior pair (Plate XXXV. figs. 1 & 2, i 1; Plate XXXVI. figs. 1-6) are large curved scalpriform teeth, of which I have not found indications of cessation of growth in any specimen. The skull above described and figured (Plate XXXV.) has been that of an aged male, judging from the size and degree of attrition of the teeth which are retained; but the anterior incisors above, like the pair below, are continued to the bottom of their deep alveoli without contraction, and with the retention of a widely open pulp-cavity (Plate XXXVI. fig. 6). It is obvious that these strong anterior incisors (ib. figs. 1-4) worked with the evergrowing power of the "dentes scalprarii" of the Wombat, the Aye-aye, and the Rodents.

In the above skull the length of i 1, following the convex curve of the tooth, is 11 inches; its circumference is 4 inches 9 lines; the breadth of the oblique abraded working surface is 1 inch 9 lines; the longitudinal extent of that surface is 2 inches; but this varies in other specimens. An extent of the tooth of  $8\frac{1}{2}$  inches (following the outer curve) is lodged in the socket of the premaxillary.

I made a transverse section of a fragment of the skull of a Diprotodon, including the fore part of the premaxillaries and their scalpriform teeth (Plate XXXVI. fig. 5). Such section of the tooth (i1, c, d, e) is irregularly three-sided, with the angles broadly rounded off. The inner side, or that next the fellow tooth, is the narrowest; the front or enamelled side is the broadest: this side is traversed lengthwise by a wide and shallow mid channel; the opposite side is grooved by a narrower and rather deeper channel, running along its outer half; and the inner more prominent half of this side (the concave one lengthwise) also shows a narrow and feeble impression near the mid-line of the tooth, and a broader more shallow impression nearer the angle, dividing the hinder from the inner surface. This surface, 1 inch 3 lines across (ib. fig. 2), is generally somewhat convex, but wavy through two or three low obtuse longitudinal ridges, with intervening shallow channels. A fossil fragment of a similarly sized tooth yielding such transverse section as that shown by this remarkable scalpriform incisor would, according to present experience, determine the genus of Mammal to which it had belonged.

The enamel coating the anterior convex curve of the tooth is continued over the major part of the outer rounded surface, terminating abruptly along a line (ib. fig. 5, e') external to the outer longitudinal ridge (c) of the posterior surface. In like manner the enamel is continued over the rounded angle between the anterior and inner or medial sides of the incisor, and terminates abruptly at e, fig. 5, after covering about one-

[&]quot; First noticed by Mason Goon, "Book of Nature,' vol. i. p. 283.

third of the inner surface. The hinder and two-thirds of the inner sides of i 1 are thus amcoated by enamel, the deutine (d) showing there only a thin coating of cement (d).

The surface of the enamel is longitudinally striate and punctate (Plate XXXVI figs. 3 & 4); the fine pits being chiefly but not wholly between the striæ; so that in some parts the surface seems to be minutely reticulate or reticulo-punctate. The surface of the dentine to which the enamel was applied shows a similar but less marked character. The cement (c) is thickest where it overlaps the terminal edges of the enamel.

The second upper incisor (Plate XXXV. fig. 1, i2; Plate XXXIX. fig. 7) is slightly curved, but in an opposite direction to the first, the anterior longitudinal outline being concave: the degree of this bend seems greater through the oblique attrition of the tooth from behind downward and forward. The transverse section of this incisor is subcircular. The length of the exposed part of the tooth is 3 inches; the circumference is 3 inches 6 lines; but this slightly diminishes to the margin of the socket, and more so to the inserted end. The fore-and-aft extent of the abraded working-surface of the tooth (ib. fig. 8) is 1 inch 6 lines. The length of the entire tooth does not exceed 4 inches.

The third upper incisor (Plate XXXV. fig. 1, i3), of similar form, is smaller. The length of the exposed part is 2 inches 10 lines; its circumference is the same; the fore-and-aft extent of the worn surface is 1 inch. This surface runs upon the same level as that of the second incisor. The crown of the large lower incisor, besides applying its trenchant edge against that of the broader front incisor, scraped upon both the smaller incisive teeth. Probably, by reason of the age of the individual and the extent of tooth worn away, the original enamelled crown has gone, and both i2 and i3 are here represented only by their cylindrical cement-covered portion.

A specimen of a detached second upper incisor is in the same condition: the enamelled crown is worn away, the root contracts to its implanted end, which shows a small remnant of a conical pulp-cavity 8 lines in depth and the same in width, as in fig. 7, Plate XXXIX.

The second and third incisors of *Diprotodon* were teeth of limited growth, and with the enamel confined to and thus defining a crown as in the Kangaroos; whilst the front incisor was a scalpriform tooth as in the Wombats, in which the second and third incisors are not developed. The extinct *Diprotodon* thus exemplifies an interesting intermediate or transitional condition of the upper "dentes primores" unknown in any existing form of *Marsupialia*.

In the upper jaw of the skull above described (Plate XXXV.) the molar series is in place, with the exception of the first small tooth  $(d\ 3)$ . The other four teeth occupy, on each side the jaw, a longitudinal alveolar extent of 7 inches 4 lines. The homologies of these teeth with those in *Macropus* are indicated by the symbols used in my 'Anatomy of Vertebrates,' vol. iii. fig. 296, where the grounds for such use are given, and in fig. 1, Plate XXXV. of the present Memoir. Scarcely a trace of the socket of the first small molar  $(d\ 3)$  remains in the skull; the other molars progressively increase in size to the last  $(m\ 3)$ , which has a minor breadth of the hind lobe than in  $m\ 2$ . The line of the

working surfaces of the four molars describes a slight convexity downwards (Plate XXXVIII. fig. 1); the exterior line is also slightly convex (ib. fig. 2); the interior line is concave in a less degree; the right and left series are moderately convergent anteriorly. The interspace between the hind lobes of the last molars (m 3) is 4 inches 1 line; that between the front lobes of the first molars (d 4) is 3 inches 1 line; these dimensions give the breadth of the palate between the right and left teeth above symbolized.

All the molars in place have an enamelled crown divided into two transverse lobes (Plates XXXVII., XXXVIII. a, b), with accessory ridges (f, g), and are inserted by cement-clad contracting roots as in *Macropus*. The summits of the transverse lobes are abraded in all the molars of the specimens figured; but least so in the hind lobe of the subject of m 3, fig. 2, Plate XXXVIII.

The socket of the first small molar (fig. 1, d 3) is partially preserved in the entire skull; it consists of two cavities, the hindmost the largest, the tooth having only two roots. In the subject of Plate XXXVII. figs. 1 & 2, the crown of d 4 is ground down nearly to the bottom of the cleft (h); the fore-and-aft extent of the grinding-surface is 1 inch 2 lines; its transverse extent across the hind lobe is the same. Across the fore part of the base of the tooth is a low ridge (f), to the level of which the anterior lobe (a) is almost worn. The corresponding ridge at the back part of the tooth is continued along both the outer and inner borders (g, g) of so much of the back part of the hind lobe as is not ground down; the whole of the surface projects beyond the level of the worn surface of the following molar (fig. 1, m). The transverse cleft is deepest at its outer and inner ends; a ridge of enamel descends from each of these ends of the anterior lobe, and, meeting a corresponding projection of the oppposite lobe, it partially closes the entry of the valley.

The anterior basal ridge is strongly developed in m 1, especially at its inner end; the interspace between it and the anterior lobe widens toward the inner side of the tooth (f). The anterior lobe is worn down nearly to the level of the ridge; the surface describes a transverse irregular ellipse; that of the posterior lobe is narrower: in both a mid linear tract of osteo-dentine (o, o) is exposed. The narrow hind basal ridge (g) is continued upon the hind lobe as in p 4, and that lobe projects clear beyond the level of the grinding-surface of m 2. The antero-posterior and transverse diameters of the working-surface of m 1 are each 1 inch 6 lines.

The anterior basal ridge (f) is strongly developed in m 2, and the antero-posterior diameter of the tooth (1 inch 9 lines) rather exceeds the transverse diameter. The front lobe (a) is worn down to within 5 lines of the basal ridge. The minor degree of abrasion of the hind lobe shows the curve of the grinding-surface, concave backward, which is lost as the thicker part of the lobe is reached. The hind basal ridge (g) is feebly developed.

In the last molar (m 3) the hind lobe is markedly less than the front one, by its more rapid loss of transverse dimension: it is rather narrower in this line at its base, as it is in fore-and-aft extent. The last upper molar of Diprotodon may be readily determined by its posterior contraction. In some individuals the hind surface of the hind lobe

is less evenly concave transversely; I have seen it almost canaliculate. The loss of breadth of this lobe is chiefly from the outer side, and the lobe is lower than the front one, the level of the grinding-surface reaching halfway toward that of the front lobe. The fore-and-aft extent of the base of the tooth is 2 inches; the transverse extent of the worn surface of the front lobe is 1 inch 6 lines; that of the hind lobe is 1 inch 3 lines. The anterior ridge (fig. 4, f) is continuous with a feeble rising of the enamel at the outer and the inner borders of the front surface of the anterior lobe. The posterior basal ridge (Plate XXXVIII. fig. 3, g) is more directly and conspicuously continued into the ridge along the inner border of the posterior surface of m 3.

Wherever sufficient of the lobes remains, their profile, especially the outer one, describes a curve concave forward (Plates XXXVII., XXXVIII. fig. 1). The inner and anterior angle of each tooth, due to the more prominent part of the front basal ridge, projects inward, a few lines beyond the inner surface of the tooth in advance (ib. ib. fig. 2). Thus there is not only a zigzag disposition in the vertical but in the transverse arrangement of the upper molars, though in the latter it be but slightly marked. The enamel is about a line in thickness, and shows strongly the reticulo-punctate or rugous surface at the less exposed parts of the crown.

The upper molars are implanted by fangs which acquire twice the length of the enamelled crown: they are at least three in number, save in the first small and early deciduous tooth (d 3). The base of the anterior division of the tooth bifurcates as it descends, slightly contracting in the socket, and thus forming two fangs in the same transverse line. The base of the posterior division, if it bifurcates in any molar, is divided later and to a less extent. It gradually contracts, and is longitudinally excavated at the side next the other fangs.

Figure 5, in Plate XXXVIII., gives a view of the two anterior fangs (m, n) of the last molar; fig. 6, ib., shows the single posterior fang (l) of the same tooth. Plate XXXIX. fig. 3 shows the sockets and implanted ends of the fangs of the antepenultimate and last molar teeth. The outstanding antero-posteriorly compressed zygomatic process of the maxillary (n') is here opposite the hind lobe of m 2.

In the series of upper molars of Diprotodom there are varieties as to size, and as to order or degree of wear, the former variety being more constant. Both are exemplified in the specimens figured in Plate XXXVII. figs. 2 & 3. In fig. 3, a portion of the left upper jaw with the last three grinders, m 1 shows both lobes and the anterior ridge worn down to a common field of dentine (d) and osteo-dentine (o, o): the summits of m 3 are partially abraded. In fig. 2, in which the last molar (m 3) shows an equal degree of abrasion, the anterior lobe is ground down near to the basal ridge (f), but this remains untouched; the valley between the two main lobes is not obliterated. What is still more unusual, where the last molar has come into use, the second molar (p 4, fig. 2, Plate XXXVII.) preserves its lobes hardly worn down to the bottom of the valley, and the two fangs of the first molar (d 3) remain in their alveolus.

A cursory comparison of the two foregoing specimens suggests that m 1 (fig. 3, Plate XXXVII.) may have been destined to be pushed out by a vertical successor, which, in place in the larger specimen (m 1, fig. 2, Plate XXXVIII.), shows of course a less degree of abrasion. But this is not the case. I have in vain sought for evidence of any premolar, in either upper or lower dental series of Diprotodon: it differs from Macropus and resembles Phascolomys in this particular. All the teeth, like the last three grinders in the type diphyodont dentition, belong to the first set. The variety as to degree of attrition in molars of the same series is due to some modified habit of mastication: the difference in respect of size I ascribe to sex, the smaller grinders belonging to the female, concomitantly with a general inferiority of bulk, as is seen in Macropus. The following admeasurements exemplify the difference of size in molar teeth, which is probably sexual:—

		Inprotodon.		
	•	Male.	Female.	
	in	. lines.	in.	lines.
m.3. Antero-posterior diameter	. 1	10	1	7
Transverse posterior diameter (base of front lobe)	. 1	11	1	6
m 4. Antero-posterior diameter	. 2	3	2	0
Transverse posterior diameter	. 2	0	1	7
m 5. Antero-posterior diameter	. 2	4	<b>2</b>	1
Transverse posterior diameter	. 2	0	1	71
Antero-posterior extent of $m$ 3, $m$ 4, $m$ 5	. 6	0	5	10

The forms and proportions in which the four constituents of the molar teeth of Diprotodon are combined, are exemplified, in the vertical longitudinal section of the last three upper grinders, in Plate XLII. fig. 1. The enamel (e) gains thickness as it recedes to a certain extent from the summits of the lobes, giving more resistance or grindingpower as the tooth wears down; but the enamel thins again at the base of the lobe; it gains a little more thickness as it is reflected, so to speak, over the basal ridges, beyond which it extends from three to four lines before thinning off, and ceases upon the body of the tooth before its division into fangs. The usual general direction of the dentinal tubules is well displayed, as in most fossil teeth. As the dentine becomes exposed and abraded, the pulp-cavity is defended by the coarser calcification of the remaining matrix near the field of abrasion, and from 2 to 3 lines of osteo-dentine is interposed between that field and the pulp-cavity. In each lobe of the tooth most worn (m 1) the cavity is reduced to a linear trace. In the anterior lobe of m 2 it is more expanded; and it retains width in both lobes of m 3. In each tooth the pulp-cavity has received a lining of dark-coloured spar in the course of fossilization. The cement is thickest upon the back part of the hind root (c), whence it extends upon the posterior basal ridge: this partial excess of cemental development assumes a characteristically definite figure in such sections as the one described.

The lower incisors (Plates XXXV., XLI. & XLII. i; Plate XXXIX figs. 4, 5, 6) are

nearly straight; the very slight degree in which they deviate from that line tends to an upward curve (Plate XXXIX. fig. 4).

The length is 10 inches, the circumference 5 inches 6 lines. The longitudinal extent of the worn surface in those of the skull (Plate XXXV.) is 3 inches; its transverse breadth is 1 inch 4 lines. The transverse section of the entire tooth (Plate XXXIX. fig. 6) is oblong; in some it presents an irregular oval with the small end upward. The outer side at its lower two-thirds is usually prominent; the inner side is more even or flat, in some instances feebly convex; in one specimen very slightly concave along its middle third. The outer side is more constantly traversed by a narrower shallow longitudinal channel, rather above the middle of that side. The enamel (Plate XXXIX. figs. 5, 6, e) is continued from the border of this channel round the lower part of the incisor, to about one-fifth of the extent of the inner side (ib. e'): its terminal borders are abrupt on both sides, with the rather thick cemental covering of the unenamelled part of the circumference extending over the enamel borders. The surface of the enamel is finely ridged lengthwise and reticulo-granulate; the minute stude of enamel being, however, more conspicuous than the holes; although these are not absent.

About two-thirds of the tooth is lodged in the socket, which extends backward a little beyond the symphysis, but without causing, as in Rodents, a prominence of the inner wall of the ramus (Plate XLI. fig. 2); in this respect Diprotodon resembles Macropus and Phaseolomys. The line of the socket forms an angle of 147° with the basal line of the mandibular ramus. The pulp-cavity (Plate XLII. fig. 5, p) is a long cone widely open at the base. The pair of tusks run almost parallel, slightly approximating so as to come into contact at their working ends.

The form of the lower incisor, described as it is shown in the most perfect specimen of the lower jaw of a full-grown example, is subject to some variety. Being a tooth of unlimited growth, it increases with the size of the jaw. In young specimens the outswelling of the outer side, or the contraction of the upper third of that side, is either not apparent or not so conspicuous, and the transverse section of the incisor yields a full oval, as in that of the young Diprotodon from the Wellington Valley Cave* (Cut, fig. 1 a), and, slightly modined, in the one of similar age from Darling Downs, Queensland (Plate NLL, fig. 1, a)

But under all these slight varieties, which I cannot regard as specific, there prevail the same essential characters of structure, disposition of enamel. &c., perinted out in my original Memoir as differentiating *Diprotodon* from *Halichore*, *Hippopotamus*, and other Mammals with tusks of similar size.

A diastema, between three and four inches in extent, rises gently as it recedes from the incisor (Plate XLI. i), to the first molar (d 3), and more so, as the molar series becomes completed and pushed out for use as in Plate XXXV. fig. 1, and Plate XLII. fig. 2.

Of the first molar tooth  $(d\,3)$  I have no specimen. Its existence was indicated by traces of its socket in the portion of mandible obtained by Dr. E. C. Hobson, from a gravel-

* MITCHBLE'S 'Three Expeditions into the Interior of Australia,' 8vo. 1838, vol. ii. p. 362, pl. 31. figs. 1 & 2.

bed in the "Melbourne district," described in my 'Catalogue of Fossils in the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons' (4to, 1845), p. 308, no. 1491; and such trace of socket showed the tooth to have been implanted by two fangs. The corresponding divisions of the socket of d 3, with the fangs in situ, are better preserved in the specimen figured in Plate XLII. fig. 5, and Plate XLIII. figs. 1 & 2, d 3. Dr. Hobson, shortly before his death in 1848, transmitted to me a sketch of this tooth in situ, in a fragment of the lower jaw of a young Diprotodon (Cut, fig. 2), according to which the anterior as well

as the posterior lobe of d 3 is in the form of a transverse wedge; there is a basal ridge along both the fore and hind parts of the crown, the latter being the broadest; in short, d 3 presents, in miniature, the bilophodont type of the succeeding molars. From the attrition of the two lobes it may be inferred that the opposing molar above was also transversely two-ridged. That the tooth (fig. 2) answers to the one which occupied the socket (d 3) in Plates XLI. & XLII. fig. 5, is shown by correspondence of size. fore-and-aft extent of the socket in both is 9 lines, the breadth of the division for the anterior fang is 4 lines, of that for the posterior fang 4½ lines; the alveolar wall extending transversely between the two divisions exceeds a line in thickness; each fang is subcircular at its fractured end, with an indent at the side turned toward the other fang, indicative of a longitudinal groove into which the walls of the socket enters, giving a firmer implantation to the tooth.



First lower molar, d 3, young Diprotodon, nat. size.

In the portion of mandible (Plate XII. & XIII. fig. 5) the penultimate molar  $(m\ 2)$  had not risen completely into place, and the posterior lobe was barely touched by masticatory work. In the mandibular ramus (Plate XIII. fig. 2), with the last molar  $(m\ 3)$  in place and both ridges showing wear, the two divisions of the socket of  $d\ 3$  are retained, without trace of tooth. The fore-and-aft extent of the socket is 9 lines, that of the hind fossa or division is  $3\frac{1}{2}$  lines, that of the front one  $2\frac{1}{2}$  lines, and that of the intervening bar is  $2\frac{1}{2}$  lines at its prominent part.

In the younger jaw the second molar (Plate XLI. figs. 1 & 2, d 4) has both lobes of the crown about half worn down; the fore-and-aft extent of the crown, including the anterior and posterior basal ridges, is 1 inch 6 lines. The anterior basal ridge is thickest at its outer part, and here the enamel has been worn off in mastication. The flat fore side of the front lobe rises 5 lines above the ridge. The abraded surface (Plate XL. fig. 3, a) of this lobe is 8 lines in transverse and 4 lines in antero-posterior extent, the mid part being increased in this direction by an outswelling of the hind surface there of the lobe. The outswelling of the front slope or surface of the hind lobe is situated more outwardly: the abraded surface (Plate XL. fig. 3, b) of this lobe is narrower from before

backward, broader transversely, than that of the front lobe. A low and short ridge of enamel (h) closes both outer and inner ends of the intervening transverse valley. The length or vertical extent of crown between the end of the valley and the division into fangs is 5 lines on the inner side and 4 lines on the outer side of the tooth. The middle of the hind surface of the hind lobe swells out; and as both outer and inner ends of the hind basal ridge (g) bend up the corresponding parts of the hind lobe, its hind, surface shows two shallow depressions divided by the above-named rising: in these depressions the reticulo-punctate character of the enamel is most strongly marked. The hind basal ridge is thicker than the front one (f), and thickest at its middle; its enamelled margin is irregular, it rises higher than, and seems to overlap, the front basal ridge of the following tooth. The cement upon the exposed part of the crown of d4, between its enamelled lobes and implanted fangs, is thick. The fangs are two in number, broadest transversely, slightly divergent, canaliculate on the contiguous sides.

In the jaw of an older Diprotodon the second molar (Plate XL. fig. 4, d 4) shows both lobes abraded to their common base, exposing the osteo-dentine (o) obliterating the cavity of the fang. A small part of the enamel of the front basal ridge (f) shows its position as blended with the front lobe. The line of enamel of the worn hind surface of the hind lobe (b) forms an open angle, of which the apex shows the end of the prominence joining the middle of the hind basal ridge (g), and dividing the remnants of the pair of depressions between that ridge and the hind lobe. The fore-and-aft extent of the worn surface of this molar is 1 inch  $6\frac{1}{2}$  lines, that of the base of the crown is 1 inch 8 lines; the breadth of the hind part of the worn surface is 1 inch. The alveolar border rises into an angle between the origins of the fangs.

In Plate XL. fig. 2 shows the working-surface of the crown of d 4, of rather smaller size than those above described, and probably from a young female Diprotodon. The summit of the anterior lobe is so far worn as to expose a transverse curved line of dentine, concave forward, beginning to expand where attrition has reached the prominent part of the hind surface of the lobe. The summit of the posterior lobe (b) has just been touched. The proportions of the basal ridges (f, g) are well shown. The reticulo-punctate character of the enamel is well marked. This tooth was from the freshwater deposits of the Province of Victoria, near Melbourne. The outer side view of this tooth is given in figure 1.

From the same locality I received the third molar  $(m \ 1)$  of the same Diprotodon (Plate XL. figs. 5 & 6): its almost untouched lobes are more compressed than in the Tapir and Dinothere, and their lamelliform summits rise higher beyond their basal connexions than in the Kangaroo; the median connecting ridge which extends between the two transverse eminences longitudinally, or in the axis of the jaw in the molars of the Kangaroo (ib. fig. 14), is very feebly indicated by the outswelling, shown in figs. 3 & 7, at the back of lobe a, in the Diprotodon. The anteriorly concave curve of the summits of the transverse lobes, in fig. 6, is more regular, equable, and greater than in the Tapir (fig. 15), the Dinothere, or the Kangaroo. The two fangs, the contiguous

MDCCCLXX. 4

surfaces of which present the deep and wide longitudinal groove, as in the Tapir, Dinothere, and Kangaroo, are connected together at their base by a ridge coated thickly with cement, and extending longitudinally between the beginnings of the opposite grooves in Diprotodon.

The third molar in the young specimen (Plate XII. figs. 1 & 2, m 1) has both lobes partially abraded; the fore-and-aft extent of the tooth is 1 inch 10 lines, the basal breadth of both lobes is the same, viz. 1 inch  $1\frac{1}{2}$  line. The reticulo-punctate or "worm-eaten" character is strongly marked on the enamel of the fore part of the front lobe; this is slightly concave transversely at its upper part, the outer and inner borders inclining forward to receive the upward continuations from those ends of the anterior transverse ridge (f). The middle of the hind surface of the front lobe (Plate XI. fig. 7, a) is prominent, making the masticatory surface widest at that part. The prominence (b) from the opposite surface of the hind lobe looks more like an infolding of the outer border of that lobe, a character exaggerated in most Kangaroos; the inner border of the hind lobe is slightly produced backward as well as forward. The hind surface of the hind lobe does not show the mid prominence. The hind transverse basal ridge (q) is highest and thickest at its middle; the ends of this hidge are less distinctly continued upon the corresponding borders of the hind lobe than in m 2. The slight backward curve of the lobes appears in the profile view of m 1, fig. 5

In the older jaw the lobes of m 1 (Plate XL fig. 9) are worn down nearly to their bases. The front transverse ridge rises a little above the hind one of the antecedent tooth; about 5 lines extent of the fore part of the front lobe rises above the ridge. The anterior enamel-line of the worn surface is nearly straight, the posterior one forms a low angle answering to the prominence of that surface of the lobe. The valley between the two lobes is most shallow and narrow at its middle. The abraded surface of the hind lobe is transversely elliptical, 1 inch  $4\frac{1}{2}$  lines in transverse diameter, and 8 lines in the opposite diameter, its hind border is worn down within 3 lines of the posterior basal ridge (g), which abuts against the next tooth above its anterior ridge.

The fourth molar (m 2) in the younger specimen (Plate XL figs. 9 & 10) has a line of dentine exposed on the summit of the front lobe (m), but the enamel is not worn off that of the hind lobe (b). The transverse concavity of the fore part of the front lobe is well marked at the present early stage of attrition: the convexity of the back part increases towards the base of the mid prominence. The ends of the front basal ridge (f) rise a little way upon the outer and inner borders of the front lobe. The transverse concavity of the fore part of the hind lobe is narrowed, as it descends, by the reciprocal and progressive inbending of the outer and inner borders of the lobe upon the front surface, as this approaches the base of the lobe. The height of the hind lobe from the middle of the valley is 1 inch 3 lines; the antero-posterior extent of the middle of the base of the lobe is 10 lines. The posterior basal ridge (g) resembles that of m 1, bearing the same proportion to the front ridge.

In the older specimen (ib. fig. 11) the two lobes of m2 are half worn down; the abraded surface of each is gently bent with the concavity forward; the transverse extent of such surface is 1 inch 7 lines; the fore-and-aft extent of the tooth is 2 inches 4 lines. The abraded surfaces slope from before downward and backward.

In the last molar of the same lower jaw the summit of the hind lobe, on which a narrow tract of dentine is exposed, measures 1 inch 4 lines in transverse extent, that of the more worn front lobe being 1 inch 6 lines. The transverse extent of the base of each lobe is the same, viz. 1 inch 7 lines. The summit of the hind transverse ridge (g) is continuous with a short low rising upon the back part of the hind lobe. The antero-posterior extent of the tooth is 2 inches 5 lines.

There is less difference between m 2 and m 3 of the lower jaw than in the upper one. Owing to the direction of the plane of attrition, the front surface of each worn lobe is higher than the back surface; the front lobe, when unworn, rises a little higher than the back one. The fore part of each tooth rises more abruptly, and in a greater degree above the back part of the tooth in advance; thus the line of attrition of the entire molar series is zigzag. The general curve of the grinding-surface of the four molars is slightly concave from before backward, as, above, it is convex. The contour of the outer sides of the lower series of molars is slightly convex; that of their inner sides is almost straight.

In the mandible belonging to the skull (Plate XXXV. fig. 1) the outer part of m 2 is worn to its base, and a larger proportion of m 3 alone remains in the left ramus*. The fore-and-aft extent of m 3 is 2 inches 5 lines: the same extent of the abraded surface of the front lobe is 9 lines, its transverse extent being 1 inch 7 lines. The enamel at this part of the tooth is fully a line in thickness.

In a fragment of the left mandibular ramus of an old Diprotodon are the last two grinders (Plate XL. figs. 17, 18), similarly worn down but better preserved. In m 2 (fig. 17) a portion of the enamel at the inner end of the valley (e), and the enamel of the hind part of the base of the hind lobe with the contiguous basal ridge alone remain; the rest of the surface is polished dentine and osteo-dentine with the external cement. In m 3 (fig. 18) the enamel is worn away from the fore and outer part of the front lobe; the front basal ridge is rounded off; the outer boundary of the valley connecting there the front and hind lobes is smoothed down, and the middle of the hind transverse ridge is touched. Both lobes are worn down nearly to the bottom of the valley. At the middle of each of the smooth concave plates of dentine, a central tract of osteo-dentine (o) is defined. The antero-posterior extent of m 2 is 2 inches 4 lines; that of m 3 is 2 inches 5 lines; the greatest transverse diameter in each is 1 inch 7 lines. This Diprotodon had probably died of old age. The outer alveolar border has grown upward with the rise of the fangs and base of the teeth to bring them into grinding contact with those of the upper jaw.

is the crown of the last molar not wholly emerged from the formative alveolus of the

The form and position of these teeth are given, in outline, from better preserved and less worn specimens.

young Diprotodon (Plate XL. figs. 12, 16), the unworn summit of the hind lobe is irregularly and minutely wrinkled, not divided into small mammilloid tubercles as in the Dinothere. In the largest existing species of Kangaroo (Macropus major and M. lamiger, e. g.) the lower molars have no posterior basal ridge. It is interesting to find that this is present in a still larger extinct species (Macropus atlas, Ow., fig. 14, g), but it is narrower than the anterior basal ridge. In the lower molars of Diprotodon the posterior basal ridge is not only constant, but is broader than the anterior one.

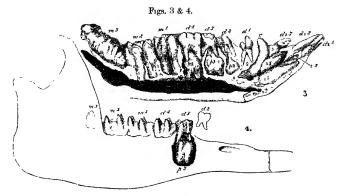
The sum of the characters of the teeth of *Diprotodon*, and the observed varieties and modifications due to sex, age, and other conditions, have been given in detail and fully illustrated. The most common evidences of extinct Mammals are detached teeth; and it seemed desirable to afford sufficient and satisfactory means of determining those of the genus *Diprotodon*, as thereby the knowledge of its geographical distribution in the Australian Continent at the period of its existence may be the more speedily acquired.

A retrospect of the dentition exhibited in the series of specimens above described and illustrated brings to view a combination of characters now shown apart in the marsupial herbivorous genera *Macropus* and *Phascolomys*; but the Macropode characters prevail in number and importance. The small upper incisors (i 2 and i 3) with definable crown and fang and concomitant limitation of growth, the same genetic character of the molars with the bilophodont type of their crown, testify to the closer affinity of *Diprotodon* to *Macropus*. The large, scalpriform, ever-growing first pair of incisors of the upper jaw, with the shape, structure, and corresponding genetic character of the lower pair of incisors, are resemblances to the Wombat's dentition; and the same affinity is exemplified in the number of the molar teeth.

In the Macropode group, although not more than five grinders are ever in place in one alveolar series of either jaw, seven may be developed. Of these teeth two have no homologues calcified in either Phascolomys or Diprotodon; these are the small anterior teeth symbolized in my 'Anatomy of Vertebrates' (vol. iii. p. 380, fig. 296) as d 2 and p 3 (Cut, fig. 4). It may be objected that, for certainty on this point, one ought to have specimens of jaws of Diprotodon of an earlier age than that represented in Plates XLII. & XLII. My experience in marsupial dentition begets confidence, however, that, had a true "replacing tooth" been developed in Diprotodon as in Macropus, its crown-germ would have been detected beneath the tooth marked d 3, in the subject of the above-cited Plates. I also believe that, had a d 2 ever been calcified and in use, as in the Kangaroos and Potoroons, some trace of its alveolus would have remained, in this young jaw, instead of the continuous, even subtrenchant margin which the diastema of the subject of Plate XLII presents between d 3 and  $\tilde{\imath}$ 

Since the Wombats in their molar dentition offer precisely the same differences as to number and succession of grinders which *Diprotodon* presents, we may have the less reserve in accepting the evidences of the further resemblance which the molar series adds to the incisive one. The extension of the genetic character of the scalpriform incisors

to the molars is the marked distinction of *Phascolomys* in the Marsupial series; for, with continuous growth, go length of tooth without loss of breadth, depth of implantation with, commonly, curvature of socket, and continuation of enamel to the widely open base of the tooth. I have no evidence that the first and smallest of the series of five grinders in *Phascolomys* is a premolar or replacing tooth, and view it, therefore, as one of the first developed calcified series. It is analogous, in function, in retention, and long-continued use, to a premolar of the placental type-dentition. The succeeding four grinders in both *Phascolomys* and *Diprotodon* are equally members of the first set of teeth; and the last three are homologous with those that are not displaced by vertical successors in diphyodont *Placentalia*. The symbols, therefore, d 3, d 4, m 1, m 2, m 3, express, in my opinion, the homologies of the functional molar teeth of *Diprotodon* with those, e. g., so marked in *Hyrax*, *Hippopotamus*, and Sus*. For convenience of comprehension of the teeth symbolized in Plates XXXV-XLII. I subjoin woodcuts of an instructive phase of dentition in the Hog (fig. 3) and Kangaroo (fig. 4).



§ 5 Spinal Column.—Of the atlas there is a portion of the left moiety (Plate XLIII. fig. 2) showing the deep articular cavity for the occipital condyle of the same side, between which and the diapophysis is the outlet of a canal (a) about 3 lines in diameter, which traverses the neural arch from within outward behind the upper part of the cavity for the condyle. The surface (z') for the articular process of the axis is slightly concave; between its upper part and the ridge leading from the hind margin of the neural arch to that of the diapophysis there is a deep and wide groove for the passage of the vertebral artery into the neural canal. The above-described fragment yields evidence that, as in Macropus, Phascolomys, Phascolarctos, and some other Marsupials, the ring of the atlas (if indeed it were completed below by bone in Diprotodon) presented only the perforation

^{*} In my 'Anatomy of Vertebrates.' vol u. p. 465, fig 312; vol u. p. 346, fig. 276; p. 357, fig. 287; p. 377. fig. 294.

(for the anterior spinal nerve or a division of it) on each side of the base of the neural arch, the vertebrarterial canal being, as above described, an open groove. In the atlas of proboscidian and of other large placental Mammals, which the present fossil resembles in size, the diapophyses are widely bored by the vertebral artery, which usually perforates also the fore part of the neurapophysis*.

I recognize, therefore, in the portion of the atlas vertebra, here referred to *Diprotodon*, marsupial characteristics; compared with that of the Kangaroo, its diapophyses are relatively shorter, thicker, terminally more obtuse, not so much expanded or depressed at that part, upon the whole more resembling those in the Wombat and Koala†.

The axis or vertebra dentata (Plates XLIII. fig. 1, & XLIV. figs. 1, 2, 3) is entire save the ends of the diapophyses, which have been broken away. The length of the body, with the odontoid process, is 6 inches 3 lines, the height of the vertebra is 8 inches 4 lines, the breadth across the anterior articular surfaces is 5 inches 9 lines. vertebra thus equals that in the largest Rhinoceros or Hippopotamus, and in length that of a full-sized Elephant. The hind surface of the centrum (Plate XLIV. fig. 3, c) is flat, rather rough, transversely elliptic, with a tendency to an angular or octagonal outline. The under surface (ib. fig. 2) expands as it advances to develope the bases of the parapophyses (ib. pp); contracting in advance of these it again expands into the anterior articular processes (ib. and fig. 1, z, z). A low hypapophysis (ib. fig. 2, hy) of a subtriangular form projects from the middle of the under surface towards the fore part. anterior articular surfaces (Plates XLIII. & XLIV. fig. 1, z) converge to the base of the coalesced body of the atlas, called "odontoid" process. This element (Plate XLIII. fig. 1, ca, and Plate XLIV. fig. 2, ca), 2 inches in length, 1 inch 6 lines in breadth, and of similar depth, is convex transversely and longitudinally below, it has a pair of slightly concave roughened surfaces, meeting above, along the anterior sloping half (Plate XLIII. fig. 1, m), behind which the upper surface rises into a low broad tuberosity (ib. t), bounding anteriorly a smoothish elliptical surface (ib. r) occupying the upper part of the rest of the odontoid. A broad deep irregular depression (ib. o) divides this surface of the odontoid from the anterior articular surfaces of the axis. These surfaces (ib. and Plate XLIV. fig. 1, z, z), of a full oval shape, 3 inches in diameter, are moderately convex. The neurapophyses (Plate XLIII. n), after developing the diapophysis (ib. d), contract to a fore-and-aft extent of 1 inch 9 lines, then expand backward to develope the postzygapophyses (z'), in advance of and between which the neurapophyses converge and coalesce to form the base of the neural spine (ib. ns). This expands both forward and backward,

^{*} Osteological Catalogue of the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons, 4to, 1853, p. 475, no. 2678, 'Atlas of Elephant' (by misprint the vertebral artery is called "medullary"); p. 509, no. 2945, 'Atlas of Rhinoceros bicornis,' "the vertebral artery perforates the diapophysis and then also the neural arch;" p. 566, no. 3404, Hippopotamus amphibius, "the transverse processes are perforated by the vertebral arteries."

[†] I am led to believe, after fresh study of Diprotodont fossils, that the one ascribed to a calcaneum in my 'Catalogue of Fossil Mammalia in the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons' may be a fragment somewhat rolled and worn of the atlas vertebra.

as it ascends, to an obliquely truncate summit nearly 5 inches in fore-and-aft extent; narrow and ridge-like at the mid part, expanding and obtuse at the fore and hind angles, the latter being the thickest; from each side of this angle a low ridge (Plate XLIII. fig. 1, g) descends obliquely forward, subsiding upon the lateral surface of the spine. The neural canal is 2 inches 3 lines in width, and rather less in height, especially behind, where the vertical diameter is 1 inch 6 lines. A wide groove leads outward and downward from the canal between the postzygapophyses and the back part of the centrum. The upper (neural) surface of the centrum is impressed at its middle with a deep pit, to which a groove leads on each side; the smooth surface has been broken away before and behind the pit, indicative of its having been crossed lengthwise by a bony bar, which would have converted the lateral groove into a pair of foramina.

Of the quadrupeds resembling in size the Diprotodon, the Proboscidians have the axis most like that of the Australian giant, but the following differences present themselves. In Elephas the odontoid is absolutely, as well as relatively shorter; the anterior articular surfaces are less uniformly convex and less convex in any direction; the neural spine is relatively lower, much thicker transversely, with a subquadrate termination or upper surface, canaliculate along the mid line, and deepening to produce a posterior bifurcation. The centrum has no hypapophysis. In Macropus, on the other hand, we find the hypapophysis is repeated both as to size and position, the odontoid process also offers a like development, with resemblance in such details as the disposition and proportions of the pair of upper terminal surfaces for ligamentous attachment, and the posterior smooth surface for the transverse ligament. The neural spine is, however, more produced anteriorly and less so behind

In my 'Osteology of Maisupialia,' I noted as a result of observations on the skeleton of Macropus major, that "in the Kangaroo both the dentata and atlas have the transverse processes grooved merely by the vertebral artery"*. I have since observed in Macropus langer the chaumscription of the groove by the development of a slender parapophysis, as in Diprotodon. A similar vertebrarterial canal occurs in Phascolomys and Phascolarctos. The neural spine of the axis in the Wombat resembles in shape that in the Diprotodon, but is rather more produced behind. The hypapophysis is, however, a mere medial low ridge, that in the Kangaroo is significantly more like the process in Diprotodon. In both Macropus, Phascolomys, and Phascolarctos a pair of conspicuous foramina near the hind part of the upper (neural) surface of the centrum lead to canals converging as they sink in the osseous substance to a common (venous) passage; these are not present in Proboscidians; a few minute megular venous foramina may be seen on the corresponding surface of the axis vertebra.

The third (Plate XLIV fig. 4) and two consecutive (Cut. fig. 5, c 3, c 4) cervical vertebræ resemble by their shortness those of the Wombat rather than of the Kangaroo; they are by no means, however, so compressed from before backward as in the Proboscidians

^{*} Trans Zool Soc. vol n p 394, see also Art Marsupudua, Cycl of Anat p 276.

In Diprotodon the length of the third cervical centrum is 1 inch 10 lines, the breadth of its hind articular surface is 4 inches 3 lines, the height of the vertebra is 8 inches. The centrum is without hypapophysis, the vertical extent of the hind surface (Plate XLIV. fig. 4, c) is 2 inches 9 lines; the two extremes of the transverse ellipse are almost angular. The base of the parapophysis (ib. and cut, fig. 5, p) extends from near this angle forward for 12 inch along the side of the centrum. The upper surface of the centrum shows a large medial venous orifice. Both margins of the rising neurapophyses are deeply notched for the "conjugational foramina," and send off a small diapophysis (ib. d) to circumscribe above the vertebrarterial canal. The neural spine (ib. ns), 4 inches in height from the roof of the neural canal (ib. n), is compressed from before backward, simple, obtusely rounded at the end, strengthened by a low medial ridge, both before and behind, along its basal half. There is no such development of neural spine in the third cervical of Proboscidians; in the larger herbivorous Marsupials it is as conspicuous as in Diprotodon, but with altered shape; that in the Wombat most resembling the one in Diprotodon, but being relatively lower.

The fourth cervical (Cut, fig. 5, c 4) much resembles the third; but, as in the Kangaroo, has a shorter spine, resembling, however, in shape that of the third, being compressed from before backward instead of from side to side as in Macropus. The slight increase of size is in breadth, chiefly of the centrum, not in length or height. canal is wider and a little higher; more space is made for the myelon as it traverses the more flexible part of the neck. The large venous foramina and vertical canal are repeated on the upper part of the centrum; the corresponding pair of foramina now also blend into a common fossa, as in the Wombat.

In the fifth cervical (Cut, fig. 5, c5) the neural spine gains in antero-posterior and loses in transverse thickness; the vertical ridges are

stronger, especially the one behind; it appears to have been shorter than in the fourth vertebra*. The centrum and neural canal have increased, chiefly ·transversely; there is very little increase of length. The parapophysis has gained in vertical extent.

In the series of mutilated vertebræ belonging to Mr. Boyn's specimen of Diprotodon are two dorsals (Plate XLIV. figs. 5-8). They show the impressions for the free articulation of the ribs both before Second to fifth cervical vertebræ, one-sixth and behind (ib. figs. 6 & 7, pl, pl'), and are remarkable



nat. size; Diprotodon.

for the retention of the short proportion of the cervicals, and for the terminal bifurcation of the antero-posteriorly compressed spine (ib. figs. 5 & 8, ns). They are not consecutive vertebræ, but were not far from one another in the anterior part of the dorsal series.

^{*} It is so in the sketch sent me by Sir Thomas Mitchell from Sydney (Cut, fig. 5); but, amongst the damages to the specimens in their passage to London, the summit of this spine has been knocked off.

As in this region the vertebræ in many Mammals decrease in breadth before regaining the size which then goes on augmenting to the lumbar region, I first take for description that (Plate XLIV. figs. 5 & 6) which with a broader centrum has a shorter as well as broader spine. The fore-and-aft extent of the centrum is 2 inches at its lower part; it slightly decreases towards its upper surface. The breadth of the centrum is 4 inches 10 lines, above which this dimension is increased by the share contributed by the neurapophyses (ib. fig. 5, n, n) to the body of the vertebra (c); the sutural lines indicative of this share are plainly traceable on the terminal articular surface (ib. fig. 5, c), from which the epiphysial plate has become detached. As the ends of both diapophyses and neural spines are broken off, the following dimensions of the vertebra are not the full ones, viz. of breadth 8 inches 6 lines, of height 9 inches 6 lines. The width of the neural canal is nearly 4 inches, its height is fully 3 inches. Both articular surfaces of the centrum are nearly flat, the anterior one in a very slight degree convex; but both surfaces are epiphysial, with coarse furrows and lines affecting a radiate disposition, the extent of which rugosity indicates the complementary plate to have overlapped both elements of the vertebral body, viz. the neurapophysial (fig. 5, n, n) and the central one (ib. c)*.

A prominence on the upper third of the side of the body indicates the lower boundary of the neurapophysis, and this part of the body holds the main part of the impressions (pl, pl') for the head of the rib, of which impressions the hinder is the larger. The contour of the articular surfaces of the body is semicircular. The neurapophyses, after contributing their share to the vertebral body, extend upward, outward, and a little forward, contracting into subcylindrical pedicles which suddenly expand to send off the diapophyses (ib. figs. 5 & 6, d), prezygapophyses (z), and postzygapophyses (z'). Before developing the latter processes the neurapophyses begin to bend inward, still ascending; then they contract, especially from before backward, converge, and coalesce to form the base of the antero-posteriorly compressed and laterally expanded spine (ns). The base of this spine is strengthened both before and behind by a low broad median ridge; its terminal divisions diverge as they rise. The undivided base forms a low obtuse eminence between them (fig. 5, ns).

The prezygapophysis (fig. 6, z) projects forward as a semicircular shelf, the flat articular surface looking upward, with a very slight inclination downward and outward; the postzygapophyses (z), of somewhat smaller size, are supported each by a buttress of bone descending from the hinder and outer angle of the spine, and expanding with a prominent convexity to the articular surface. The upper surface of the centrum, between the neurapophysial bases, shows the large venous fossa.

In the other dorsal vertebra (Plate XLIV. figs. 7, 8) the diapophysis is entire on the left side (fig. 8, d), and expands into a protuberance with an articular surface (fig. 7, d) 1 inch 9 lines by 1 inch 3 lines, for the tubercle of the rib on its lower half. The neurapophysial parts of the centrum are traceable, and make a more definite rising at

MDCCCLXX. 4 E

^{*} This is the usual character of epiphyses completing compound bones, as, e.g., at the proximal end of the three confluent metatarsals in the bird, at both ends of the two confluent metacarpals in the ruminant, &c.

the upper part on each side the small intervening proportion of the centrum proper (ib. fig. 8, c). Posteriorly they also slightly project (fig. 7, n) beyond the flat surface of the centrum (ib. c); and a smooth tract of the neural canal (fig. 8, n', n') is continued backward upon each of these prominences. The fore surface of the centrum is in a very slight degree convex; both surfaces are epiphysial or rough, with the usual tendency to a radiate disposition of the fine furrows. The postzygapophyses (z') are somewhat more prominent than in the former dorsal (figs. 5 & 6), and the neural spine slopes a little backward. This process is narrower transversely than in fig. 5, and is longer prior to its bifurcation (fig. 8, ns). Its strengthening ridges, especially the anterior one, are more developed; the bifurcation of the summit is repeated in this as in the foregoing vertebra, with slight divergence of the terminal prongs, both of which have lost their summits.

In the whole range of the Mammalian series I know of no dorsal vertebræ with characters like the subjects of figures 5-8. Where vertebræ are notable for their shortness and lamelliform type they are confined to the region of the neck, as, e. g., in *Proboscidia* and *Cetacea*; but the dorsal series, in these, promptly resumes the ordinary proportions of length of centrum. Similarly, where the transversely bifurcate character of the neural spine is met with (e. g. Elephant, Man), it is restricted to one or two of the cervical series; in *Diprotodon* only is it known to exist in a dorsal vertebra. What modification may ensue or at what distance from the neck in other or posterior dorsal vertebræ my present materials do not enable me to state. I infer that the more usual proportions are acquired in the posterior dorsals from the slight increase presented in the following specimen, and from those which certain of the lumbar vertebræ present.

The specimen referred to, which forms part of the collection in the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons, consists of the centrum only.

It measures 2 inches 3 lines, in antero-posterior diameter, 3 inches in vertical diameter, and 4 inches 9 lines in transverse diameter. Both articular extremities are flat; the epiphysial plates are anchylosed; but where they are broken away the radiating rough lines, characteristic of the epiphysial surface, indicate that the union was tardy and had been recently effected before the animal perished. This vertebra differs by its compressed form and the flattening of the articular ends from the dorsal vertebræ of the ordinary placental Pachyderms, but resembles in these characters the dorsal vertebræ of the Proboscidians; in these, however, the breadth of the vertebral body is not so great as in the fossil. From the cetacean vertebræ the present fossil is distinguished by the large concave articular surface at the upper and anterior part of the side of the body for the reception of part of the head of a rib; this costal surface, which is not quite entire, appears to have been about 1½ inch in diameter. The neurapophyses are anchylosed to the centrum, but the internal margins of their expanded bases are definable, and have been separated by a tract rather less than 1 inch in breadth, of the upper surface of the centrum; at the middle of this surface there is a deep transversely oblong depression. A similar depression is present in some dorsal vertebræ of the Megatherium and in the

anchylosed lumbar vertebra of the Mylodon; but the bodies of the dorsal vertebræ in the great extinct Bruta are longer and narrower in proportion to their breadth than in the present fossil. In the Kangaroo the upper surface of the body of the dorsal and lumbar vertebræ is perforated by two vascular canals, which pass down vertically and open below by a single or double outlet. In the Wombat the middle of the upper surface of the bodies of the dorsal and lumbar vertebræ exhibits a single large and deep depression, which in the dorsal vertebræ has no inferior outlet, and in this character they closely resemble the present fossil. The dorsal vertebræ of the Wombat are, however, longer in proportion to their breadth.

Thus the present mutilated vertebra alone would support the conclusion that there had formerly existed in Australia a mammiferous quadruped, superior to the Rhinoceros in bulk, and distinct from any known species of corresponding size. It is interesting and instructive to find one well-marked character in it, viz. the median excavation on the upper part of the body, repeated in the same vertebræ of one of the largest of the existing Marsupialia.

The remaining evidences of vertebræ in the Boydian or purchased series of Diprotodont Fossils in the British Museum consist of five centrums and two pairs of detached terminal epiphyses of those elements.

The centrums, in the absence of any costal or hæmapophysial depression, in their increased length and greater expanse of the neural canal, are referable to the lumbar series. Three retain the coalesced bases of the neurapophyses, yet these do not develope diapophyses in the extent to which they are preserved.

The foremost of these lumbar centrums shows a length of 2 inches 4 lines at its lower part, increasing to 2 inches 8 lines at its upper part; the others, with slight general gain of size, show the same proportions. Thus the one which seems the last of the series has a length of 3 inches 3 lines at the lower part, and of 3 inches 8 lines at the upper part of the centrum. Thus we may infer that the part of the spine from which these vertebræ have come was habitually bent in Diprotodon with the concavity downward. The degree of increased length in the last over the longest of the other three centrums indicates two or three missing vertebræ intervening between those to hand. The Kangaroo has six lumbar vertebræ, the Koala eight, the Wombats only four (Phascolomys vombatus) or five (Phascolomys latifrons). Six lumbars is the rule in Marsupialia, and I incline to view Diprotodon as amenable thereto, rather than as repeating the exceptional formula of Phascolomys*.

In the foremost of the five fossil lumbar centrums a small protuberance from the upper and fore part of one side indicates the rudiment of a diapophysis; it is not present on

^{*} As I was led to note in my 'Osteology of Marsupialia,' loc. cit., p. 396, the number of free trunk-vertebre is significantly constant in that order, whatever be the difference of costal formula; thus, Phascolarctos has 11 costal, 8 lumbar, =19; Petaurus, 12 costal, 7 lumbar, =19; Macropus, Phalangista, Perameles, Myrmecobius, Phascogale, Didelphys, Dasyurus, Sarcophilus, Thylacinus, have severally 13 costal, 7 lumbar, =19; Phascolomys vombatus has 15 costal, 4 lumbar =19.

the other side; it may be a vertebra, as is sometimes seen in the Kangaroo and other mammals, transitional between the dorsal and lumbar series, having the characters of a rib-bearer on one side and not on the other. A trace of roughness on the side of the fossil centrum corresponding to the protuberance on the other side, may indicate there a ligamentous attachment of a rudiment of the last free rib. The present vertebra, whether interpreted as the last dorsal or first lumbar, shows the small extent to which those vertebræ gained in length as they receded in position. The antero-posterior diameter at the under part of the centrum is 2 inches 5 lines, at the upper part 2 inches 10 lines; the breadth of the anterior surface is 4 inches 10 lines, the vertical diameter of the same surface is 3 inches 9 lines. The epiphysial plate adheres to this surface; it is concentrically marked, thinning off to the centre, where it leaves a vacuity transversely oblong, 1 inch 4 lines by 1 inch in its diameters. From the opposite surface the epiphysis has been detached, showing the radiate disposition of the rugæ of the diaphysial surface, and the proportions contributed by the bases of the neurapophyses to the vertebral body.

In the next vertebral body, of similar dimensions, the anterior epiphysis is adherent, but with the line of suture conspicuous; it is from 3 to 4 lines thick at the periphery, and thins off toward the centre, where it leaves a vacuity of about 1 inch in diameter. The surface, for 1 inch at the periphery, is moderately convex, the rest is flat. The free surface of the centrum is greatly and equably concave lengthwise. At the middle of the neural surface is a transversely oblong venous fossa, 9 lines by 6 lines in diameters. This centrum adheres by matrix to the succeeding one, which, repeating the characters above noted, retains about 1 inch of the neurapophysial pedicles or lamelke. Each at its origin has a fore-and-aft extent of 2 inches, contracting to 1 inch 8 lines at the fractured end; it rises nearer the fore than the hind end of the centrum. The extreme thickness (1 inch) is toward the fore part of the pedicle. The transverse diameter of the neural canal at the broken ends of the pedicles is 3 inches 6 lines. The venous fossa is repeated in this as a single median one; but in another lumbar centrum the entry is divided by a median longitudinal tract of the neural surface, as is commonly the case in the Kangaroo.

In the third of these the left pedicle is preserved to a height of 2 inches, expanding then to an antero-posterior extent of 2 inches 3 lines, and a transverse one of 1 inch 5 lines; at the lower contracted part of the neurapophysis these diameters are, respectively, 1 inch 9 lines and 1 inch. Yet the whole of the outer surface is smooth without trace of outstanding transverse process; whereas in both Kangaroo and Wombat that process comes off at the junction of the neurapophysis with the centrum. We may therefore infer that the neural arch of the lumbar series was loftier in *Diprotodon*, as we have already seen it to have been in the two anterior dorsal vertebræ preserved. The epiphysis is wanting from the hind surface of the third lumbar described, and the sutures of the neurapophyses with the centrum are there exposed. They project a little beyond the epiphysial surface of the centrum. The largest and hindmost of the present series of lumbars (Plate XLIV.

figs. 9, 10), the length of the centrum of which has been noted above, shows a breadth of hind surface (fig. 10) of 5 inches 9 lines, its height being 4 inches; the antero-posterior extent of the base of the pedicle is 2 inches 6 lines; about 9 lines extent of the centrum extends backward beyond it.

The smaller pair of epiphysial vertebral plates (ib. fig. 12), cemented together by the matrix, have come, according to their size and shape, from the cervical series; they are transversely elliptical, 4 inches 6 lines in long diameter, and 3 inches in short diameter. The thicker free or peripheral margins (12, a) diverge from each other, and they thin off to a central vacuity (12, c). The larger pair (ib. fig. 13) appear to be from the lumbar series; they measure 4 inches  $7\frac{1}{2}$  lines across, and 3 inches 8 lines down the middle; their central vacuity is transversely oblong, measuring 1 inch 3 lines by 1 inch. These detached vertebral epiphyses are completely petrified.

The terminal epiphyses of the bodies of dorsal and lumbar vertebræ remain distinct, and come off in pairs attached by intervertebral substance in Kangaroos which have arrived at full growth. I presume that the same circumstance occurred in the course of decomposition or maceration of the carcass and skeleton of *Diprotodon*; hence the presence of such separate pairs of epiphyses receiving co-attachment from the matrix after separation from their proper centrums*.

Of the ribs, though few are entire, so many have reached me as suffice to show that,

* Since the reception of the specimens of vertebræ above described, I have been favoured with two drawings, of the natural size, of a side view and end view of a lumbar vertebra of a Diprotodon, from St. Ruth's Station, Condamine River, Queensland, by Dr. Fr. Campell. In these drawings sufficient of the neural arch is preserved to show the base of the diapophysis extending outward, at 1 inch 6 lines above the level of the upper surface of the centrum. The breadth of the centrum is 5 inches, its vertical diameter 4 inches; the breadth of the neural canal is 3 inches 6 lines, the fore-and-aft extent of the centrum at its upper third is 2 inches 10 lines. An oblique broad low ridge or rising of the outer surface of the pedicle rises to the lower part of the base of the neurapophysis.

The two drawings, of side and front views, of this vertebra have been made carefully, and I believe accurately, as regards admeasurements, by Mr. Campbell's son, who found the vertebra, and whose letter to his father on the subject is as follows:—

"The enclosed drawings I send to you to amuse you a little till I come down, speculating as to what the huge animal was. I have the bone and some more, now in my possession. A large top jaw with a few pieces of teeth sticking in it, and what looks like a blow-hole in the top—some smaller shank bones, or something of the sort—all fossil. They ring like east iron when knocked together: too heavy to bring down with me:—they are of a dark brick colour. I will try and make drawings of the rest if I have time before I come down. One of the vertebre of a Bull looks very small indeed alongside this great bone.

In the letter inclosing his son's drawings Dr. C. writes:—"The bones he mentions in the letter and whose likeness is also inclosed herewith, I regret to say he was induced to part with to a gentleman to whom he was under particular obligations of friendship, and who had expressed a great desire to possess them." Should the present notice ever meet the eyes of the possessor of these fossils he may be assured that it would give me pleasure to make them subservient to the advancement of a knowledge of Diprotodon.

as in Marsupials and most Mammals, they vary in length, curvature, degree in which the groove for the intercostal vessels and nerve is excavated, distinction of head and tubercle, and relative position of the latter (Plate L.  $pl_{1-14}$ ).

The longest specimen measures 2 feet 1 inch, following the convexity of its curve. The tubercle is low,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches from the head; the intercostal groove is shallow, and chiefly defined by a ridge-like production of the posterior border at the upper fourth of the rib, 3 or 4 inches in extent. Beyond this the rib loses thickness and gains breadth, the latter dimension reaching to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch about one-third from the broken end.

Another specimen presents a greater degree of curvature. The tubercle is better developed, has a more definite articular surface, extending upon the neck of the rib. The broadest part of the rib (1 inch 9 lines) is at the upper third of the bone. This rib had a more anterior position in the chest than the former; the extent preserved, following the convexity of the curve, is 1 foot  $6\frac{1}{2}$  inches.

A third specimen with head, tubercle, and intercostal groove well marked, is less curved than the former, and is larger than either of the above described. A length of 1 foot 4 inches is preserved. The fractured end is elliptic, 1 inch 9 lines in long diameter, 1 inch in short diameter; but the rib midway between the end and the head attains a breadth of 2 inches. This has come from nearer the middle of the chest.

The only entire specimen is a posterior rib, with the tuberosity relatively small and rough; the head large, intercostal groove almost obsolete; body of the rib straight along its distal half, which gradually expands, with loss of thickness to a breadth of 2 inches 2 lines. The length of this rib, following the convex curve, is 1 foot 8 inches. The lower extremity shows the roughened surface for the attachment of the costal cartilage.

The costal fragments yield little more than the character of size. The vertebral end of one, which includes the tubercle, has a circumference below that part of  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches. Another fragment has a circumference of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches; a third fragment is nearly 6 inches in circumference; a fourth fragment shows a flatter shape.

From the shortness of the costigerous vertebræ and the size of the ribs, their interspaces must have been narrow.

Assuming with much confidence that the dorso-lumbar series in *Diprotodon* included nineteen vertebræ, I assign one more pair of ribs than in the Kangaroo, and reckon fourteen pairs in the dorsal series (Plate L.).

§ 6. Scapula.—The scapula is represented in the Boydian collection of Diprotodont remains by an almost entire specimen of that of the left side (Plate XLV.), and by a fragment of the one of the right side.

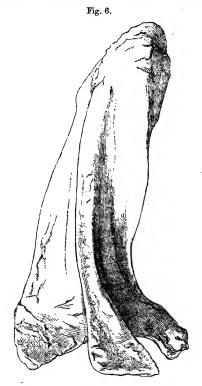
It is narrow in proportion to its length, and chiefly peculiar by the production of the subspinal plate anteriorly (ib. a), whereby the usual proportions of the triangular mammalian scapula are reversed, the part answering to the base (ib. b) being the apex, and

the articular end of the bone (ib. a, c) the base of the triangle, which is elongate and irregular.

The articular or glenoid cavity (ib. d) presents the usual oval shape with the small end upward (ib. fig. 3); the concavity is deepest lengthwise, and the apical part is most produced. The outer border beneath the acromion (e) has been broken off, indicative of its prominence, which is better preserved in the articular cavity of the fragment of the right scapula, showing its resemblance to that part in *Macropus*. This border subsides, becoming thick and convex as it approaches the small or coracoid end of the

cavity. The lower border is continued into a rugged triangular surface beneath (fig. 3, a) for the attachment of the long head of the triceps; the upper apical part is produced, beak-like, beyond the base of the coracoid (c). The inner margin is low near the apex, but less obtuse than the corresponding part of the outer one; it is more produced as it descends; but this margin subsides gradually into the subscapular one.

The spine (ib. fig. 1, f) begins by a gradual elevation of the lower or hinder half of the hinder surface of the "base" (b), which elevation contracts as it rises from that surface to a thickness of 11 inch. The free border, of this thickness, is also flat; the spine gradually rising as it advances, describes a slight curve toward the upper or anterior costa(q); the lower margin of the free border becomes most produced, and, as the spine expands into the acromion (e), this margin also expands and becomes rough for muscular attachments, and in the present specimen forms the most prominent part of the acromion; but the end of this process is broken off. From a pencil-sketch of this scapula made by Sir Thomas MITCHELL when it arrived at Sydney (Woodcut, fig. 6), the acromion (e) continued to expand to an obliquely



Scapula of Diprotodon: one-fifth nat. size.

truncate end, having the upper or fore angle most produced, and, as it were, slightly twisted towards the coracoid (c) (indicated by the dotted line in fig. 1, Plate XLV.). As the spine (ib. f) rises from the scapular plate, it becomes compressed or thinner beneath the free margin, and presents a smooth concave surface to each scapular fossa (i, j).

The coracoid process (Plate XLV., c), arising from a base of 3 inches in extent, is sub-compressed, with the outer surface concave as it extends toward the end of the process, which, however, is broken off. The upper or front "costa" (ib. g) describes a strong concave curve as it recedes from the coracoid; the middle third of its extent (ib. g'), which was probably convex and produced, has been broken away. Where it is again entire (ib. g') it describes a gentle concavity, and forms the outer border of a sudden thickening of that part of the basal end of the scapula. The upper or basal three-fourths of this anterior border of the bladebone are curved "dorsad," so as to bound or form the (transverse) hollow of the supraspinal fossa (ib. fig. 1, i). The part broken from the upper costa (g') may have made the breadth of the fossa, as in the Kangaroo and most Marsupials, greater at its mid part than appears in this fossil.

The subspinal fossa (ib. j) increases in breadth from the basal (b) to the articular end (a) of the scapula, singularly reversing its proportions in other Mammals. In the Koala (*Phascolarctos*) this fossa retains its breadth through an extension of the lower costa nearer to the glenoid cavity than usual*. The corresponding extension is proportionally greater in the scapula of the *Megatherium*; but in *Diprotodon* it is continued as far forward as the neck of the scapula, with an increase of thickness, and a bend toward the "dorsum" of the scapula, increasing the depth of the concavity of this part of the subspinal fossa. The border of the plate (ib. a, a') produced below or behind the glenoid cavity (a), and having the same aspect, is very thick, concave lengthwise, convex across, with a rough slightly projecting insertional surface at its middle: a more rugged surface appears also at the angle a, where it joins the lower or hinder costa, but this is the seat of some mutilation of the fossil.

This costa (a, b) loses thickness as it recedes from the angle for one-fourth of its extent; it regains a certain thickness and ruggedness for another fourth (k), where it is also bent toward the subscapular plane; it then continues drawing nearer to the origin of the spine and finally thickens as it is lost in the obtuse contracted basal end (b) of the bladebone.

The long and narrow subscapular surface (Plate XLV. fig. 2l) presents a gentle concavity lengthwise, with a corresponding convexity across the middle, rather increased at the two ends; the mid convexity is changed to a concavity by the in-bending of the part (k) of the lower costa above mentioned. The smooth subscapular surface is broken only by the thick short triangular elevation (ib. m) extending from near the upper or fore angle of the base.

The singular, not to say unique, development of the "glenoidal" part of the inferior costa (a, a') or subspinal plate, was doubtless correlated with some peculiarity of use or application of the fore limb. As to the general shape of the scapula, I cannot suppress expressing the interest with which I have viewed in this old extinct Marsupial or implacental form of Mammal the retention of so much of the archetypal or pleurapophysial proportions which one sees without surprise in inferior Vertebrates such as Monotremes, Birds, Reptiles, and Fishes.

^{*} This peculiarity is figured in the 'Cyclopædia of Anatomy,' Art. Marsupialia, p. 281, fig. 106.

The total length of the above described scapula is 2 feet 3 inches; the extreme breadth is 1 foot 2 inches; the long axis of the glenoid cavity is 6 inches, the short axis 4 inches 2 lines; the height of the spine at the base of the acromion is 4 inches.

Fragments of scapula, from the bed of the Condamine River, west of Moreton Bay, Australia, in the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons, placed with some doubt in the series of Diprotodont remains in my 'Catalogue of Fossil Mammalia' (4to, 1845, p. 298), can now be certainly referred to Diprotodon australis. One of these fragments (no. 1471) includes 4 inches of the interior part of the origin of the spine. "The thickness of the neck of the scapula is 2 inches 9 lines; that of the base of the spine is 1 inch. The indication of the sudden rising of this thick spine from the plane of the scapula distinguishes it from that bone in the Rhinoceros, and its thickness is greater than in the largest Hippopotamus; it is also relatively greater in comparison with the neck of the scapula than in the Elephant" (p. 298). The specimen was thus differentiated, in 1845, from all known Mammals of corresponding or approximate bulk, and is now seen to conform in the particulars cited with the bladebone of Diprotodon.

A portion of the glenoid cavity and neck of the scapula of a large Mammalian quadruped (no. 1472), from the same Australian deposits, shows similar dimensions to those in the entire scapula of *Diprotodon australis*.

§ 7. Humerus.—In Macropus the articular head of the humerus is subhemispherical, looks a little backward as well as upward (the bone being held vertically), and overhangs the back part of the shaft. The inner and outer tuberosities rise above the head, in front of it. The inner tuberosity is thicker and shorter than the outer one, which extends ridge-like obliquely from without inward and forward where that end projects, forming the outside of the deep groove, dividing it from the inner tuberosity; the groove expands and shallows as it descends, and is soon lost in the fore part of the shaft.

The inner tuberosity is supported on a columnar development of the fore and inner part of the shaft. From the fore end of the oblong outer tuberosity the "deltoid" ridge extends halfway down the middle of the fore part of the shaft, being more or less prominent in different species. In all the ridge attains its greatest breadth and prominence at its lower part before its sudden subsidence. At the outer side of the shaft above the developed termination of the deltoid ridge, projects a short, thick, longitudinal ridge, with a rough obtuse surface. Thus the fore part of the upper half of the humerus is divided into two facets, the inner one deepening upwards to the inter-tuberous or bicipital groove; the outer one broader and flatter, between the outer and the deltoid ridges. The back part of the upper half of the humerus is also, but less definitely, divided into two longitudinal tracts; the outer one flattened or slightly concave transversely where bounded by the outer ridge; the inner one gradually contracting, with increased transverse convexity, to be continued into the ridge leading to the ento-condyloid tuberosity. The shaft of the humerus is more bent, with the concavity backward, than usual; the distal end not being turned forward in the degree which gives the ordinary sigmoid shape to this bone in unguiculate mammals.

4 F

MDCCCLXX.

The humerus in Marsupials is not described in either editions (1805, 1835) of the 'Leçons d'Anatomie Comparée.' But in the 'Ossemens Fossiles' (4to, tom. iv. p. 284) Cuvier notes the precaution requisite in the examination of the distal articular surface of the humerus in Marsupials on account of its resemblance to that in Carnivora. In the posthumous 8vo edition of the 'Ossemens Fossiles,' tom. vii. p. 276, after the generalization as to the perforation of the inner condyle in Carnivora, is added: "ainsi que chez les Didelphes et dans tous les animaux à bourse." So likewise De Blainville states that the inner condyle of the humerus is perforated, "chez tous les Didelphes sans exception," using the term in his peculiar taxonomic sense as equivalent to the Marsupialia of other zoologists. I have, however, pointed out exceptions to this rule in certain Dasyures (Dasyurus Maugei), Phalangers (Ph. Cookei), and Petaurists*.

So much it seemed requisite to premise, because the imperforate condition of the inner condyle also characterizes the bone in *Diprotodon*, differentiating it from the humerus in *Macropus* and *Phascolomys*, without, however, affecting the marsupiality of the great extinct Herbivore. To the description of this bone in *Diprotodon* I now proceed.

The humerus (Plate XLVI.) is more nearly straight than in other Marsupials, and is remarkable for the feeble development of the ridges for muscular attachments. At a glance one sees its relations to the restricted offices of support and locomotion with much less subserviency than in the smaller existing Marsupials to more varied applications of the fore limb.

The head of the bone (ib. figs. 1 & 2, a, and fig. 3) rises above the tuberosities (b, c), forming a very large proportion of the upper end (fig. 3). It has the usual degree of convexity, with a full oval contour, the long axis being transverse, and the smaller end next the outer tuberosity; it overhangs the back part of the shaft at its inner two-thirds (fig. 1), but in a less degree than in the Kangaroo. The inner tuberosity (b) is represented by a low broad, rough ridge, extending from the inner side along the fore part of the periphery of the head to near the small outer end of the articular ball; here it is interrupted by a wide but very shallow representative of the "bicipital groove." The outer tuberosity (c) projects in a greater degree from the outer side of the base of the head.

The broad, low, rounded angle between the fore and outer sides of the humeral shaft, continued from the fore end of the outer tuberosity (fig. 2, c), representing at first the outer side of the bicipital groove, descends and assumes rather more of the character of a muscular ridge at the mid length of the shaft (fig. 2, d) before subsiding.

The homologue (ib. e) of the short external ridge in *Macropus* here projects as strongly from that side of the bone, but on the same transverse parallel with the lower, best developed part of the deltoid ridge (d). Consequently the external ridge is relatively lower placed than in the Kangaroos; it is also relatively shorter, lengthwise, and stands out more abruptly at its upper part.

The representative of the deltoid ridge divides the fore part of the shaft unequally, and the broader division or tract (fig. 2, f) is internal, the narrower division or tract (ib. g)

^{*} Osteology of Marsupialia, loc. cit. p. 400.

being turned so as to form rather the outer facet or side of the upper half of the humeral shaft. Another peculiarity of the present humerus is a well-defined oval rough surface (fig. 1, h) at the outer side of the back part of the shaft, one-fourth of the way down; this surface measures 2 inches 2 lines lengthwise, by 1 inch 2 lines across; the lower half of its periphery is most prominent. A low ridge, about an inch in length, in Macropus major, seems to answer to this process.

The shaft expands transversely and becomes flattened from before backward at its lower third as far as the distal articulation (fig. 4), which resumes antero-posterior thickness with reduction of transverse extent. The ento-condylar ridge (i) is much produced, though relatively less than in *Macropus*; the upper and lower borders meet at an open angle; the ridge is very thick; it extends more than 2 inches from the ulnar condyle; it is imperforate.

The ectocondylar ridge (k) is longer than the inner one (i), but is less prominent; it is also angular in form, but more openly so. The upper and longer side, commencing 6 inches above the radial condyle, is narrow and slightly turned forward; the lower side rapidly expands to nearly the fore-and-aft breadth of the radial condyle, along the radial or outer border of which the ectocondylar ridge subsides. The middle of the distal expansion of the shaft, above the articulation, is remarkable for the size and depth of the anterior fossa (fig. 2, l); the posterior or olecranal depression (fig. 1, m) is comparatively feebly marked.

The radial (n) and ulnar (o) condyles are more convex and more equal than in *Macropus*; they are divided by a narrower and deeper trochlear channel.

The radial condyle is the longest; its outer and hinder marginal contour describes part of a circle, and is not encroached upon, as in *Macropus*, by the rough surface from the ectocondylar tuberosity. The ulnar condyle, which begins in *Macropus* to subside or give way to augment the intermediate concavity, here retains its hemispheroid form (ib. fig. 4, o). It is interesting to note this resemblance to the distal articulation of a femur in the humerus of an animal low in the Mammalian scale.

The hind or "olecranal," supracondylar depression (fig. 1, m) is shallow, limited in situation to above the ulnar condyle, and the narrow intercondylar channel, and not extending to above the radial condyle.

I have not been able to find the orifice of a medullary artery: the distal portion of the left humerus, broken from the rest of the bone near the middle of the shaft, 11½ inches from the distal end, shows a depression near the middle of the fractured surface half an inch across and not quite an inch deep; and this, if it be not an accidental excavation in the dense cancellous structure, is the sole indication of a medullary cavity. Such cavity is wanting or small in the gigantic extinct Sloths. It is, again, with interest that I view this sign of low organization in the great extinct Marsupial mammal*.

Ulaa. Of the ulna I have hitherto received only the proximal half, and with the

^{*} Description of the Skeleton of Mylodon robustus, 4to, 1842, p. 82. Memoir on the Megatherium, 4to, 1860, p. 49.

olecranon not quite entire; it is a strong but low trihedral process, smooth and concave on the inner side, roughish and flattened behind; with a smooth almost horizontal triangular surface at the upper part. The breadth of the base of the electron is 3 inches 10 lines; the circumference of the base is 13 inches. The articular surface answering to the "greater sigmoid cavity" is concave, longer and deeper from before backward than from side to side. From its upper and outer part a less concave articular surface is continued upon the inner side of the base of the olecranon. The lower part of this surface, which may have afforded the "lesser sigmoid cavity" to the radius, is broken away. The rough tract for syndesmotic junction with the radius extends down the outer side of the shaft inclining obliquely forward: it is about an inch in breadth. There is a small but well-marked tuberosity and depression, on the outer or radial side of the ulna, 11 inch below the "greater sigmoid cavity," answering to a corresponding process in the Wombat. The elongation of the olecranon in that burrowing Marsupial, augmenting the lever for working the fore paw, does not exist, and was not needed in the gigantic gradatorial Diprotodon. The portion of ulna above described indicates a massive and powerful fore arm, and has encouraged me to indicate the continuation of the ulna, as a distinct bone, to the carpus, in my restoration of Diprotodon (Plate L.). The canal for the medullary artery enters the bone on the inner side (that next the radius) below the "sigmoid" articular cavity, and the canal is directed inward and a little upward. This fossil was obtained in the bed of the Condamine River, west of Moreton Bay, by Sir Thomas Mitchell, C.B.

§ 8. Pelvis.—In a collection of bones from fluviatile freshwater deposits at Eton Vale, Darling Downs*, in the usual massive or weighty, semipetrified condition of fossils from those beds, were fragments of a large pelvis, readjustible to the extent of giving a great part of the sacrum and ilia, both acetabula, the acetabular portion of each ischium to the extent of 7 or 8 inches, and about 5 inches of the acetabular end of each pubis.

The sacrum consists of two vertebræ (Plate XLVII.  $s_1$ ,  $s_2$ ), uniting with the ilia (ib.  $s_2$ ) by a terminal expanse of the transverse processes (ib. fig.  $1, pl_1, pl_2$ ), coequal with the antero-posterior extent of the entire sacrum, and giving to that bone a subquadrate form one-third broader than it is long. Much of the anterior articular surface of the body of the first sacral (fig.  $1, s_1$ ) is preserved, and a smaller proportion of the posterior surface of that of the second sacral (ib.  $s_2$ ). Both surfaces show the usual mammalian flatness and concentric lineation for union by intervertebral sclerous substance with contiguous centrums: the rougher surface shows the loss of the epiphysial plate. The transverse diameter of the fore part of the first centrum is 5 inches; the vertical (neuro-hæmal) diameter is 3 inches. The transverse diameter of the hind end of this centrum, giving that of the fore end of the succeeding anchylosed centrum ( $s_1$ ), is 3 inches 5 lines. The hæmal† surface of both centrums (Plate XLVII. fig.  $1, s_1, s_2$ ) is flat, subquadrate, the

^{*} These fossils, collected in the above-named locality by Edward S. Hill, Esq., were liberally presented to the British Museum by Sir Daniel Cooper, Bart., in 1864.

[†] In noting the position and aspect of the parts of this pelvis according to anthropotomical description, .

contour being straight lengthwise, the coalesced ends making no projection forward or harmad.

The upper and anterior border of the first centrum, however, is abraded, as is the lower and anterior border of the second centrum; both being entire, would give a slight concavity to the longitudinal contour of the hæmal surface. The length of the sacrum is 5 inches 8 lines, that of the anterior centrum being 3 inches 3 lines. The rib-part (pl:) of the broad and thick transverse process of the first sacral recedes slightly as it expands, passing outward to join the ilium (62), with a slight curvature convex hæmad. The greater part of the hæmal surface of the process is flat transversely, becoming slightly concave at its hind part; lengthwise it is here convex from before backward. The line of the confluence with the ilium, indicated by a slight eminence (ib. fig. 1, p, p), is feebly curved with the convexity outward. The sacro-iliac symphysis is 8 inches in length following the curve; the origin of the sacral rib or transverse process has a fore-and-aft extent of 3 inches 9 lines. The direction of the origin of the process in both vertebræ is oblique, from near the neural surface of the centrum anteriorly to the hæmal one posteriorly. The hind border of the origin of the first transverse process forms the fore margin of the wide anterior outlet of the intervertebral canal (i), which expands into an infundibuliform channel backed by the succeeding transverse process  $(pl_z)$ .

The neural position of the fore part of the transverse process  $(pl\ 2)$  of the second sacral makes the aspect of the nerve-outlet (i) obliquely hæmad and backward; the long diameter of the outlet is  $1\frac{1}{4}$  inch; the mass of nerves therefrom emerging has deeply grooved the upper or fore part of the great sciatic, or sacro-ischiatic notch (m). The outlet thus intervening between the bases of the transverse processes is circumscribed externally by the confluence of the expanded ends of those processes, forming the articular surface of the sacrum with the ilium.

The tuberosity (Plate XLVII. figs. 2, 3, z') representing the confluent zygapophyses of the first and second sacrals is on the inner side and anterior to the posterior outlet (ib. fig. 2, j) of the intervertebral nerve-canal, and partly overhangs a smaller outlet (g) of a canal passing backward to open into the large intervertebral canal. The fractured base of the left postzygapophysis (ib. z'') of the second sacral is preserved, close to the outer end of the hind margin of the neural arch.

The neural spine of the first sacral (ib. figs. 2 & 3,  $ns_1$ ) is coextensive at its base with the summit of the arch, has a fore-and-aft extent of 2 inches, a transverse breadth of 1 inch 2 lines. The summit of the spine is broken away at the height of about 1 inch,

the surface of the sacrum and ilium turned toward the pelvic cavity is "anterior" or "forward;" but in the ordinary posture of the quadruped it would be "inferior" or "downward." In the nomenclature of Dr. Barclax such surface would be "central" and look "centrad," the opposite surface "peripheral" and looking "peripherad;" or those surfaces might be "sternal" and "dorsal" respectively. I shall use the term "neural" and "neurad" in the sense of Barclay's "dorsal" and "dorsal" and of the anthropotomist's "posterior," and the term "hæmal" and "hæmad" in the sense of "sternal" and "sternad." Fore or anterior, and aft, hind, or posterior will be used to denote the relations of the parts toward the head or the tail of the quadruped.

and there the spine is 1 inch in thickness and 1 inch 7 lines in fore-and-aft extent. The anterior orifice of the neural canal (Plate XLVII. fig. 3, n) is 3 inches 5 lines in transverse diameter, but only 1 inch vertically between the centrum and summit of the neural and; and this dimension is rather lessened at the middle of the canal by a slight rising along that part of the neural surface of the centrum. A medial vertical ridge with a depression on each side marks the fore part of the base of the thick neural spine (ns.,). The fractured base of the prezygapophysis (z) of the first sacral measures 2 inches 4 lines by 1 inch 5 lines.

A partial ossification extends from the base of the neural spine of the first to that of the second sacral (ib. fig. 2,  $ns_1 & s_2$ ), bisecting a deep triangular depression, which, however, does not communicate with the neural canal; a continuous ossification from the first to the second sacral neural arch forms a smooth unbroken ceiling to the canal. The posterior outlet of the neural canal (ib. n') of the second sacral is transversely extended, 3 inches 6 kines across, 10 lines in height on each side the mid rising of the centrum. A greater proportion of the neural spine ( $ns_2$ ) of the second sacral than of the first is broken away; the remaining base gives 1 inch 8 lines in fore-and-aft extent, 10 lines in greatest breadth, which is at the hind part; the fore part is ridged with a small depression on each side. The irregular ossification is continued from the median ridge to the antecedent spine.

Of both ilia a large proportion has been preserved. The acetabular part (0) swells out from the body of the bone, before (fig. 1) and behind (fig. 2), and developes a tuberosity (d) oblong lengthwise, triangular transversely, at the upper or anterior part of the brim of the cavity. In advance of the acetabulum the ilium contracts, especially from the neural to the hæmal aspect, or is depressed and lamelliform; but continues thickest medially to form the junction with the sacrum, and contracts laterally to a smoothly rounded concave margin (ib. figs. 1 & 2, n). About the sacro-iliac symphysis the medial and anterior border, or "crista" of the ilium (c) contracts to a thickness of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch, and where it is entire is convex and roughened. At the fore part of this symphysis is an oval foramen, 1 inch by 9 lines in diameters (ib. fig. 3, f), the outlet of a canal communicating with the capacious intervertebral canal. The free portion of the ilium is lamelliform, arches outwardly, the thin outer or hinder border (n) describing a bold concave curve. Save for two inches near the symphysis of the right ilium, the crista is broken away. The hæmal surface of the iliac plate (fig. 1, 6) is almost flat. Transversely, it is convex one-third of the extent from the fractured margin (c), concave to the opposite outer margin (a, n), both curves being feeble; lengthwise it becomes concave toward the acctabulum. The hæmal tract (p, p) of the sacro-iliac symphysis forms a low broad smooth convex ridge, enlarging and slightly rising as it approaches the acetabular part of the ilium, but subsiding before this begins to expand; this ridge, or tract, feebly represents the "linea ileo-pectinalis." It seems to be suddenly resumed by a process (e) at the junction of the ilium with the acetabular end of the pubis (a). I infer, at least from its being broken off on each side of this pelvis, that it projected far enough to be called a "process" rather than a " tuberosity." The fractured base is oblong, 14 inch by 9 lines. The process so indicated answers to that called "ilio-pubic" in Pocphaga*.

The neural surface (Plate XLVII. fig. 2,  $\infty$ ) of the free part of the ilium is almost as flat as the hæmal surface; lengthwise the general slight convexity changes to a concavity as it approaches the acetabulum; transversely the surface becomes gently convex towards the thin concave border (n).

The neural surface of the ilium is divided into a rough and a smooth part; the latter is exterior, narrow, extending about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch from the external border (n), becoming gradually narrower to within 4 inches of the precotylar tuberosity (d), where the smooth tract ends; the rest of the neural surface of the iliac plate is chiefly roughened by coarse grooves and low ridges, mostly inclining lengthwise with more or less obliquity, indicative of coarse and strong muscular attachments.

At the inner and back part of the sacro-iliac symphysis an angular tuberosity, answering to the "posterior inferior spine," unites with a larger rough tuberosity from the transverse process of the second sacral vertebra, together forming a large "sacro-iliac" tuberosity (ib. u), overhanging the deep and wide groove at the fore or upper part of the great sacrosciatic notch (m). The plane of the long curved lamelliform ilium is thus almost horizontal, or with surfaces looking neurad and hæmad; the long axis of the bone forms with that of the sacrum an angle of 35° (Plate L. a, s).

Of the ischium (ib. figs. 1, 2, 4,  $_{50}$ ) the spine is represented by a slightly prominent surface (l), roughened at its upper and lower margins, of an oval form, 2 inches by 1 inch in diameters, the long one being in the direction or axis of the ischium, and the small end of the oval is forward. Between the upper part of the "spina ischii" and the neural margin of the acetabulum is a low subcircular rugous tuberosity (fig. 2, q) 1 inch in diameter. The back or neural wall of the acetabulum contracts as it retrogrades, the part contributed by the ilium being broader than that by the ischium.

The acetabular part of the innominatum contracts transversely, and expands in the neuro-hamal direction from the line m, d to the line l, t.

The ischium as it is produced backward beyond the acetabulum contracts, but is rounded and thick posteriorly, and is thinned off only anteriorly where it forms part of the margin of the "foramen ovale." The ischia diverge from each other at this part, instead of retrograding parallel with each other as in *Macropus*; but to what extent is not shown in the present specimen.

The great sacro-sciatic notch (figs. 1 & 2, m, l) presents a deep and wide groove (m) at the form part, overhung by the produced hind part of the sacro-iliac symphysis (u), which symphysis is here obliterated by anchylosis. Below the groove the back part of the acetabulum makes convex that part of the margin of the notch, which margin is again concave slightly to the tuberosity representing the ischial spine (l).

^{*} Osteol. of Marsupialia, tom. cit. p. 403: the shares taken respectively by the ilium and pubis in the formation of the ilio-pubic process is shown in the 'Cy lopædia of Anatomy,' 8vo, vol. iii. (1841), Art. Marsupialia, p. 284, fig. 110 (Hypsiprymnus).

In both "innominata" the pubis (64) is broken off close to the acetabulum. The diameters of the fractured surface are 2 inches 6 lines and 1 inch 5 lines, the latter breadth being near the back part of the bone which gives a subtriangular section. The anterior apex is formed by a rough ridge, which rises from the hæmal part of the pubis about 2 inches from the ilio-pubic process (Plate XLVII. fig. 1, e), leaving a shallow groove between the ridge and the acetabular margin.

The acetabulum (ib. fig. 4, t) is a nearly hemispherical depression,  $5\frac{1}{2}$  inches by  $5\frac{1}{4}$  inches across the opening, nearly 3 inches in depth; its rim is smoothly rounded and less thick between the pubic ridge (4) and the "antero-inferior" iliac spine (d); thicker and rough from this to the posterior or ischial part (6); this, as it bounds the acetabulum posteriorly, curves upward, gradually subsiding to form the outer wall of the "cotyloid notch" or groove (y) conducting the vessels to the synovial and adipose mass about the expanded, rough, slightly depressed surface for the origin of the "ligamentum teres." This surface (x) is oval, 2 inches 8 lines by 1 inch 3 lines in diameters; the cotyloid groove is 10 lines wide. The aspect of the acetabulum is outward and more obliquely downward and backward than in Macropus, through a greater development of the iliac, and especially of the pubic, walls.

The sacrum is in the line of the lumbar vertebræ, upon which line the ilia are directed obliquely forward and neurad at the angle above given (Plate L.).

The condition already noted of the materials for the recomposition of the present pelvis allows not of determination of the form and extent of the "brim of the pelvis," assuming, as is most probable, that this was naturally entire; nor does it give the extent, form, and direction of the ischio-pubic symphysis which I conclude to have existed. The transverse diameter of the pelvic cavity between the acetabular origins of the pubic bones (ib. fig. 1,  $\omega$ ) is 1 foot, between the ischial spines (l, l) 7 inches. From the portion traceable of the "foramen ovale" I infer it to have been relatively large, as restored in Plate L.

The ischia are divergent in the extent to which they are preserved. Although the tuberosity and terminal part of the ischium are wanting, the hinder articular surface of the second sacral centrum (Plate XLVII. fig. 2, s 2) permits a conclusion that the ischia were free from any direct union with the vertebral column.

The remains of no quadruped so large as that indicated by the above-described pelvis, save those of Diprotodon, have been discovered in the freshwater deposits of Darling Downs. Yet it would betray an undue confidence in the proportion of present acquisitions of fossil remains to the entire extinct mammalian population of Australia, to infer specific relationship from sameness of locality, or even some degree of juraposition of parts of a skeleton. It is incumbent, therefore, to state the results of the comparison of the pelvis in question with those of known genera of Mammals which have led me to the conclusion that it is marsupial and referable to the largest known species of the pouched order.

The most conspicuous feature of the pelvis, without doubt, is unlike the corresponding part in any known marsupial, and so much more resembles that in the Elephant as to

have supported the view first suggested by the flattened form of the femur next to be described, if more instructive characters had not been shown deducible from the pelvis in question.

The ilia, though not quite entire along the "labrum" (Plate XLVII. figs. 1 & 2, c), are sufficiently so to support the inference that they were short, broad or expanded, with a flattened surface rather than a fossa, directed hæmad or downward, and in a minor degree forward. Such a lamelliform ilium is not presented by any existing genus of Marsupial, but is found, besides the Proboscidians, in Megatherioids, Sloths, Apes, and Man.

From the Elephant's the ilia of the present species differ in the much less production of the angle terminating in the antero-superior spine (a, a), which, in Proboscidians, extends outward and bends down in an almost hooked form to near the parallel of the acetabular outlet.

In the Megatherium and Mylodon the ilia are proportionally more expanded and outwardly extended than in the Elephant. The ilia of the Sloths (Bradypus, Cholæpus) come nearer to the proportions of those in Plates XLVII.; but the antero-superior angle is rounded off, and the position and aspect of the iliac planes are different. There is, however, a more marked, definite, and weightier distinction between the present pelvis and that of other Mammals with expanded lamelliform ilia. Leaving the human and simial pelves out of the comparison, that of the Elephant includes four sacral vertebræ, and the Sloths, both arboreal and terrestrial, have the sacrum unusually prolonged to effect the second junction with the innominate bones at the ischial tuberosities, thus converting the "great sciatic notch" into a foramen.

In the present pelvis the sacral vertebræ are but two in number. Now this, as a rule, is the number to which the sacral vertebræ are restricted in Marsupialia; and it strikes me as the more significant of the affinity, so indicated in the present pelvis, because it is associated with a modification of the ilium which, in the placental series, goes with at least double that number, and commonly with many more sacral vertebræ, five or six, e.g., in the Sloths and Megatherium, and as many as eleven vertebræ anchylosed in a mass in the Mylodon. A still more decisive mark of Marsupial affinity in the pelvis in question is the evidence of an ilio-pubic process (Plate XLVII. fig. 1.e, e); and this also points to the particular family of Marsupialia to which the large quadruped under consideration is more nearly related. Only in the Kangaroos is this process so developed as to be subject to such violence as has broken it away on both sides of the present pelvis. In all other Marsupialia it is indicated, if at all, by a mere tuberosity. The concurrence, therefore, of a bisegmental sacrum with the ilio-pubic process decides me to restrict further comparison with the pelvis of the Kangaroos (Macropus).

I take the difference of form of the iliac bones, which is very great, between *Macropus* and *Diprotodon*—for if we arrive at the Marsupial genus with a diprotodont dental formula by the pelvic route we may be absolved of rashness in drawing the obvious conclusion—to depend on the corresponding differences in the mode of locomotion deducible

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from the structure and proportions of the limb bones. Diprotodon, by the equable and massive development of fore and hind limbs, must have progressed on dry land, like the Elephants and Megatherioids, with a regular, quadrupedal, gravigrade pace, though no doubt less sluggishly than either Mylodon or Megatherium. It is evident that it could not depend on the hind limbs alone for rapid escape from enemies as do the Kangaroos. The powerful exertions those singular marsupial animals impose upon their long legs in the successive bounds by which they rapidly traverse the plain, call for the provision of long muscles and of strongly contracting ones, indicated by the long, strong, three-sided, and three-ridged ilia, in which both sides of the prism destined for muscular attachments are deeply hollowed. The corresponding pelvic muscles in Diprotodon must have been relatively shorter, less thick, but broader, and, in relation to the thigh bone, arranged and disposed more or less as in the Elephant.

Amongst minor differences between Macropus and Diprotodon in the anatomy of a part of the skeleton in which they agree in more essential characters, I note that the outer margin of the sacral apophyses (Plate XIVII. fig. 1,  $pl_z$ ), uniting with the ilia at p, p, do not curve hæmad as in Macropus, making that surface transversely concave.

The outlet of the anterior canal communicating with the wide intervertebral nervepassage, answering to that marked g in Diprotodon (ib. fig. 2), is relatively smaller and more in advance of the soldered zygapophyses uniting together the two sacrals in Macropus. The "spine of the ilium" in Macropus is represented by a relatively narrower and less prominent surface than in Diprotodon, is further from the ischial spine, nearer the middle of the back wall of the acetabulum in Macropus. The breadth of this wall is almost equal in the Great Kangaroo, and the hind contour of the acetabular brim is almost parallel with the coextensive inner and hinder border of the innominatum.

The ischium, as it is produced backward beyond the acetabulum, is relatively more compressed and lamelliform in *Macropus* than in *Diprotodom*, and, most probably, is relatively longer. In the acetabulum itself the vascular groove and the ligamentous depression are relatively deeper in *Macropus* than in *Diprotodom*.

§ 9. Femur.—The femur is remarkable for the length, breadth, and depth of the proximal end, including the "head," "neck," and "trochanters," for the rise of the head above the great trochanter, for the fore-and-aft flattening of the shaft, and for the extent in the same direction of the inner condyle chiefly due to the prominence of its narrow anterior tuberous end.

The chief dimensions of this bone are given in the 'Table of Admeasurements,' p. 574. The "head" (Plates XLVIII. & XLIX. fig. 1, a) is egg-shaped, the great end hemispherical with the articular surface produced upon the upper part of the neck, contracting and representing the small end of the egg (Plate XLVIII. fig. 1, b). There is no pit for attachment of a ligamentum teres; the sole indication of any special addition to the fibres of the capsule of the joint is a rough shallow indent of an angular form, encroaching on the ball from the under part of its periphery (Plate XLIX. fig. 1, c). The fore-and-aft diameter of the head is  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches; the transverse extent to the end of the supracervical

apex is 6 inches: this production is more conspicuous at the fore (Plate XLVIII. fig. 1, b) than at the back part (Plate XLIX. fig. 1). The margin of the articular surface is slightly prominent, through the sudden contraction of the rough surface of the neck; but this is chiefly at the fore part (Plate XLVIII. fig. 1, d), towards which aspect the head slightly inclines. At the back part of the neck, just beyond the head, there is a low ridge  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch long (Plate XLIX. fig. 1, e) parallel to the margin of the articular surface.

The rugged surface of the great trochanter commences at the middle of the upper part of the neck, with a moderate elevation and a border convex towards the head (Plate XLVIII. fig. 2, f); its fore-and-aft breadth here is  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches, but the process expands as it recedes from the head, sloping downward to a breadth of 4 inches 10 lines; its outer expanded termination is subbilobed, the posterior lobe (ib. h) being most produced outward; the anterior one (ib. g) is continued furthest down the shaft.

Anteriorly the great trochanter is defined by the abrupt rising of the rugged surface from the smooth surface of the neck along a curved line (ib. fig. 1, i, i), which bends round the lower part of the anterior lobe (ib. fig. 1, g),: this is continued upon the fore part of the shaft near its outer margin for an extent of 5 inches from the upper surface of the lobe; the posterior lobe (Plate XLIX. fig. 1, h) extends a shorter way down the outer surface of the femur, and is defined, or rises, very abruptly from the smooth tract of that part of the shaft. The posterior part of the trochanter projects as a thick oblong tuberosity (ib. fig. 1, k) above the trochanterian depression (ib. l): the mouth of this depression is 3 inches 8 lines in length, 1 inch in breadth, opening parallel with the lower margin of the neck, and is 3 inches in depth. Beyond the depression the posterior margin of the trochanter is less defined from the femoral shaft than is the anterior one. The neck of the femur (Plates XLVIII. & XLIX. m) begins by hardly a less diameter than the head from above downward, and augments in that direction as it extends outward; it is rapidly compressed from before backward, as it recedes, especially where it is continued into the trochanterian fossa (I); its upper margin is slightly concave from within outward, convex from before backward, 2 inches broad in that direction; the lower margin is 2 inches 6 lines. This margin is not uniformly convex across, but is remarkable for the production of its hinder half into a long narrow elliptical rough ridge, representing the small trochanter, which is 6 inches in length and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch across the middle (Plate XLVIII. fig. 1, n).

The lower ends of this and of the anterior tuberosity of the great trochanter are on the same transverse parallel, at which the proper shaft of the femur may be said to commence. This is defined by a gentle concave curve in both outer and inner sides, the least transverse diameter being 4 inches 5 lines. At the upper half of the shaft the fore-and-aft thickness decreases from the outer to the inner border, which is reduced to 2 inches before rounding off. This border gains in thickness as it approaches the lower end.

The outer side of the compressed shaft preserves a thickness of about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  inches along

its middle two-thirds, expanding above and below to the ends of the bone. The fore surface of the shaft is smooth, the hind surface shows a shallow narrow longitudinal depression (Plate XLVIII. fig. 2, o; Plate XLIX. fig. 1, o), and near the outer border,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches above the outer condyle, it is  $2\frac{1}{2}$  inches in length. A subcircular feebly marked rough surface or patch (Plate XLIX. fig. 1, p) is discernible near the middle of the back surface, not quite halfway down the shaft.

The rotular surface (Plate XLVIII. figs. 1, 2, 4, r) of the distal end, defined by a low rising from a slightly depressed fore part of the lower end of the shaft (ib. fig. 1, q), is made strongly concave transversely by the forward production of the narrow tuberous end (ib. s) of the fore part of the inner condyle (t), from which it is divided by a channel  $\frac{1}{2}$  an inch wide (ib. fig. 4, x) continued to the intercondular pit (u) from the inner surface of the distal end of the shaft. The large rotular surface, thus concave transversely, convex from before backward, is broadly continuous with the articular surface of the outer condyle (ib. figs. 1 & 4, v). The fore-and-aft extent of the inner condyle, including the rotular part, is 8 inches; the same diameter of the outer condyle is but 4 inches 7 lines. The transverse diameter of the back part of the inner condule is 3 inches 6 lines; that of the outer condyle is the same; the transverse diameter of both condyles (Plate XLIX. fig. 1, t, v), including the intervening depression (u), is 7 inches 6 lines. The form of the articular surface is very different here, in the two condyles; the inner one (t) shows a full convexity in both directions, the transverse contour becoming flattened toward the outer border. The outer condyle (v) is slightly concave transversely along two-thirds of its middle part, the outer convex border being somewhat produced; the outer condyle is also less convex from before backward than the inner one. There can hardly be said to be a popliteal depression; the vertical line of the back of the shaft is continued directly into the intercondyloid groove (u), the sides of which are formed by the production of the back parts of the condyles.

The inner surface of the distal end of the shaft developes a strong ridge (Plate XLVIII. fig. 5, w), extending above 4 inches from the back part of the inner condyle toward the rotular division of the same. The outer supracondylar surface is more even and is slightly concave, divided by a moderate rough prominence (ib. fig. 1, y) from the smooth outer part of the shaft.

The outer side of the shaft, for a short way below the great trochanter, joins the hind surface at an angle, simulating a low ridge continued from the end of the hind lobe of that process, and subsiding into the rounded smooth convexity of the outer part of the shaft; but there is no "linea aspera." I cannot detect in this femur any orifice of a medullary artery. The fractured surface of the shaft of a left femur does not indicate any medullary cavity. But in the shaft of another femur, corresponding with the above in size and shape, the transverse being to the antero-posterior diameter as two to one, there is a conspicuous orifice for the medullary artery, at the back part and a little above the middle of the shaft, toward the inner side; the canal slopes upward, to a small spheroid medullary cavity, with dense walls 1 inch in thickness (Plate XLVIII. fig. 3).

The femur, like the pelvis, of *Diprotodon* presents the greatest resemblance in general form and characters to the corresponding bone in *Proboscidia*. The head is devoid of the ligamentous pit; the shaft is straight and antero-posteriorly compressed; there is little* or no medullary cavity.

Passing to particulars of structure, there appear several more or less well-marked differences.

The head rises higher above the neck and trochanter in *Elephas*; it has a more directly upward aspect, the neck is shorter, the great trochanter is absolutely, as well as relatively, of less extent in *Elephas*. The trochanterian depression is less deep, and opens nearer the exterior surface of the trochanter. A ridge is continued downward from the border of the depression, which, with a second ridge continued downward from the outer part of the trochanter, bounds a flat facet forming the outer surface of the upper half of the shaft: there is no such definite facet in *Diprotodon*. At the upper and fore part of the trochanter in *Elephas* there projects a tuberosity midway between the head of the femur and the outer part of the trochanter, and the neck rising to support this tuberosity is somewhat convex transversely: there is no trace of this tuberosity in *Diprotodon*, and the fore part of the neck is concave transversely. The small trochanter, which in *Elephas*, as in *Diprotodon*, is a long longitudinal ridge, is situated lower down in *Proboscidia*. The ridges continued from the great trochanter upon the shaft represent, in that order, "linex aspera," of which there is no trace in *Diprotodon*.

The differences become more marked at the lower end of the bone. The rotular surface or pulley is absolutely as well as relatively narrower in *Elephas*; it has a more anterior aspect, is supported on an anterior production or expanse of the femur; the sides of the pulley are parallel, subequally developed; there is no production of the inner one as in *Diprotodon*. The outer as well as the inner part of the rotular articular surface is distinct from that surface in the corresponding condyle. Both condyles are convex and equally prominent behind in *Elephas*: in which genus there is no transverse hollowing of the outer condyle, giving a trochlear character with production of the outer border of that condyle as in *Diprotodon*. The intercondylar groove is deeper and narrower in *Elephas* than in *Diprotodon*.

Omitting the notes of comparisons of the femur of Diprotodon with that in other large quadrupeds, the essential correspondence throwing true light on the determination of the species to which it belongs, and the affinity of that species, is found in the Poëphaga or Macropodida exclusively. It is there only that one finds the transverse excavation of the surface of the outer femoral condyle, producing the contrast of a trochlear character of surface with the uniform convexity or ball-like prominence of the inner condyle. In the Great Kangaroos (Macropus major, M. laniger) the character is exaggerated, the channel is deeper, and its outer border is more produced. The rotular surface is broad, with unsymmetrical sides in Macropus, the inner border being sharpest, though less produced anteriorly than in Diprotodon.

^{*} See Osteological Catalogue of the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons, 4to, p. 481.

Macropus further agrees with Diprotodon and differs from Elephas in the continuity of the articular surface, giving that of the synovial cavity, of the rotular and condylar joints; but in Macropus the inner as well as the outer condyle is so continuous. The intercondylar groove is relatively wider in Macropus than in Diprotodon, and, the condyles being more backwardly produced, it is deeper. The longitudinal ridge-like small trochanter is placed higher in Macropus as in Diprotodon than it is in Elephas. The attachment of that muscle, which leaves a circular rough patch at the back of the femoral shaft in Diprotodon, is developed into a tuberosity in Macropus. The trochanterian depression is very deep in Macropus as it is in Diprotodon. The great trochanter is bilobed exteriorly in Macropus, but with a deeper and differently directed dividing channel than in Diprotodon.

I discern in the foregoing correspondences the essential marks of affinity, and view the greater elevation of the trochanter major in *Macropus*, the greater length and cylindroid form of the shaft of the femur, the greater relative antero-posterior extent of the distal end, and especially of the outer condyle, with the stronger indications of muscular attachment, as adaptive characters in the smaller Marsupial related to its more rapid and vigorous modes of locomotion.

§ 10. Tibia.—The tibia, of the general dimensions given in the Table of Admeasurements, p. 574. I conclude, by the agreement in size and character of the upper articular surface (Plate XLIX. fig. 4) with the lower one of the femur (Plate XLIVIII. fig. 4), to belong to the same leg, viz. the right one, of Diprotodon.

The external upper articular surface (Plate XLIX, figs. 3 & 4, a) is gently undulated, with a transverse convexity adapted to the corresponding concavity on the outer femoral condyle, and with the concavities, though slight, answering to the convexities of that condule. The inner articular surface (ib. fig. 4, b) is larger, and presents a uniform concavity to the convex inner femoral condyle. The ridge or spine (ib. figs. 2, 4, c) between the articular surfaces extends 2 inches from behind forward and a little outward; it is from 6 lines to 10 lines thick, and is roughly excavated above. The rough part of the upper surface of the tibia (ib. d), in advance of the articulations, is more extended transversely from behind forward. The breadth of the upper surface exceeds by two-fifths the foreand-aft diameter. The articular surface for the head of the fibula (ib. fig. 3, e) is continuous with the outer articular surface (a), and extends from its outer and hinder margin at a rather acute angle or nearly a right angle, 1 inch 4 lines down the shaft, the breadth of the surface being 1 inch 6 lines. In advance of this surface projects the external tuberosity (f), from which a thick (epicnemial) ridge-like rising of bone (ib. fig. 2, g, g) extends in front of the upper end of the tibia for about  $5\frac{1}{3}$  inches. This ridge or prominent tract is longitudinally striate or scratched, as if it were an ossified ligamentous attachment. At the middle of the fore part of the tibial head a narrow ridge (ib. fig. 2, h) is continued from the transverse one 2 inches down the shaft, like the procnemial ridge in birds, but much less produced. From the junction of the "epicnemial" ridge with the outer tuberosity a narrow "ectocnemial" ridge (ib. i) extends for an inch or two down the shaft. Beneath the outer tuberosity is a rough shallow cavity (ib. fig. 3, k), and a similar but smaller one (ib. l) impresses the shaft a little way below the fibular articular surface. An internal tuberosity (figs. 2 & 4, m) is feebly marked below the contracted inner end of the inner articular surface.

The shaft of the tibia rapidly contracts to a transverse diameter of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  inches at the middle third of its extent, where it is trihedral, with the angles rounded off. It appears to be twisted with the inner malleolus turned forward; but this is very feebly marked, not projecting below the distal articular surface. At the outer and back part of the lower half of the shaft is a rough longitudinal prominence (fig. 3, n), 4 inches by 1 inch, seemingly for ligamentous attachment of the corresponding part of the shaft of the fibula. At the inner and back part of the shaft a low narrow fibrous ridge runs parallel with the inner border of the fibular ridge, defining therewith an oblique shallow canal, 9 lines in width.

A slightly raised border of bone (figs. 2, 3, p), from 1 to 2 inches distant from the lower articulation, seems to indicate the original line of junction of the epiphysis. Malleoli cannot be predicated of the distal end of this tibia (ib. fig. 5). At the inner periphery of the articular surface, instead of a prominence there is a notch (ib. q), from which a groove  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch long and 5 inches wide extends outward and forward into the joint; the rough convex border of the articulation external to this, corresponding in position to the fore part of the upper end of the tibia, appears to represent an internal malleolus. On each side the entering groove (q) the distal articular surface is slightly convex; in the rest of its extent it is nearly flat; its form is oblong, with the long axis at right angles to that of the upper articular surface, *i. e.* from before backward instead of from side to side.

In a portion of the shaft of a tibia, obtained by Sir Thomas MITCHELL from the bed of the Condamine River, the upper part of the ridge between the outer and hinder surfaces shows the orifice of a medullary arterial canal, which expands as it slightly descends. No medullary cavity, however, is shown in this fragment. The compact part of the wall of the shaft is half an inch thick, and a moderately close cancellous structure extends inward to the centre of the shaft.

A subtrihedral portion of bone, including the distal end and accompanying the above portion of tibia, I believe to be part of the fibula; it is 7 inches in circumference. The centre of the shaft is occupied by a close cancellous texture. The articular extremity is much abraded; a trace of the epiphysial suture remains; and I find that this is long conspicuous in the fibula of the Wombat. I have given what I conjecture to be the proportions of the fibula in my restoration of the skeleton of Diprotodon, Plate L.

In the singular form of the tibia of *Diprotodon* are presented Marsupial characters exclusively. "The outer articular surface is continuous with that of the head of the fibula"*, as in the Wombat and Koala; "the shaft of the tibia is twisted as in Opossums, Dasyures, Phalangers, and Petaurists, as well as in the Koala and Wombat"*.

^{.. *} Osteology of the Marsupialia, loc. cit p. 405.

"The internal malleolus is very slightly produced in any Marsupial"*, save in the Wombat and Kangaroo.

"The fibula is complete and forms the external malleolus in all Marsupials;" and such may be inferred to be its condition from the evidences of attachment shown in the tibia of Diprotodon. Only, instead of "the close contact and attachment ensuring a due degree of fixity and strength" in the Kangaroos, I infer from the articular surfaces on the tibia for the fibula and for the foot that this "enjoyed a movement of rotation analogous to the formation and supination of the hand", as in all save the saltatory Marsupials; and we may infer a corresponding modification of the foot approximating Diprotodon to Phascolomys.

§ 11. Conclusion.—Thus in the series of Mammalia which characterizes the Australian continent we have evidence of the former existence of a species as large as the Megatherium—that strange extinct animal which similarly crowns the series of Bruta correspondingly characteristic of the South American Continent.

It is interesting to note the similarity in size, number, and form of working-surface of the molar teeth in the extinct Marsupial and Bradypodal giants; so much so that, notwithstanding the different dental structures and conditions of growth, one cannot resist the inference of a correspondence of diet. But whereas in Megatherium the front teeth are wanting, and the prehension of the vegetable food was allotted to limbs and tongue, in Diprotodon instruments allied to those by which the Beaver and Wombat gnaw the ligneous fibre were magnified to the proportions of the body to be provided for. The Marsupial monster brought down the tempting foliage by crosion of the trunk, not by the strong hawl of a forcible grasp. Accordingly, the limbs show not those abnormal proportions which distinguish the Megatherioids; they manifest, especially the hind ones with the pelvis, in the Diprotodon, forms and proportions recalling those of the Elephant, and suggestive of analogous uses and mode of progression. The fore limbs may be inferred by the modifications of the distal articulation of the humerus, and by what is known of the ulna, to have enjoyed the rotatory as well as flexile movements. Herein the Diprotodon resembles the Megatherium rather than the Elephant; but the truer inference from the retention of the rotatory and probably unguiculate structure of the fore paws is that, as in the existing herbivorous Marsupials, they were needed for the manipulations of the pouch.

The resemblance in the Diprotodont and Megatherioid dentitions, guiding to the recognition of function or adaptive purpose, are underlain, as above hinted, by differences of textural and genetic conditions. *Diprotodon* combines enamel with dentine, osteodentine, and cement; *Megatherium* has no enamel. In *Diprotodon* the molars have a limited period of growth; in *Megatherium* that period was limited only with life.

The Australian giant adds to number, relative size, and shape of crown, of its molars, in which it accords with the existing macropodal marsupial dwarf of that land, the further correspondence in the coronal enamel and the divergent roots of the grinders.

^{*} Osteology of the Marsupialia, loc. cit. p. 405.

Similarly, the American phytophagous giant added to a bilophodont working-surface of its few and small molars, the peculiar texture and rootless condition of the long deeply implanted ever-growing dental mass, characteristic of the molars of the existing dwarf-sloths of its continent.

When only the large curved pair of upper scalpriform incisors of *Diprotodon* were known, to which the subcompressed lower pair are opposed, an alliance of *Diprotodon* to *Phascolomys* was suggested. The subsequent evidence of a nearer affinity to *Macropus* instructively exemplifies the superior value of the molar teeth as indicators of the nature of an extinct animal*.

It is true that in the proportions of the limbs, especially in those of the tibia and its distinction from the fibula, as in some other particulars of the osteology of Diprotodon, it resembles more the Wombats than the Kangaroos; but the more weighty and essential correspondences are with the *Macropodida*; the equipedal modifications are adaptive and necessitated by the bulk of the extinct marsupial herbivore. The most elastic imagination could hardly stretch to the association of the disproportionate hind limbs of the Kangaroo with a trunk equalling that of a Rhinoceros; for according to that pattern, Diprotodon must have towered to a height of 30 feet. The departure from the type of its diminutive modern allies is, again, interestingly analogous to that which occurs in the herbivorous Bruta. The bulk and weight of body in Megatherium precluded the proportions of length and slenderness, with terminal prehensile instruments, in the limbs, by means of which its diminutive congeners and contemporaries have been enabled to manner the bulk and weight of *Diprotodon* militated against its enjoying the privilege of the elongate saltatory limbs to which its small congeners and contemporaries the Kangaroos have owed their safety, or the scansorial ones by which the Koala climbs out of danger.

The analogies traceable between the extinct herbivorous giants of the two remote tracts of dry land are full of interest and instruction. I may add that as swift and continuous course and power of climbing are privileges checked or regulated by the mass and weight to be hurried along or dragged aloft, so likewise is the faculty of burrowing and concealment under ground. The *Diprotodon* was as impotent to avail itself of the means of escape to which the comparatively diminutive Wombats owe their present existence, at it was of the interposition of space, which the Kangaroo by a succession of long leaps, rapidly puts between itself and its pursuers.

Subject to this explanation the combination of Wombat- and Kangaroo-characters may be adduced as exemplifying that more generalized structure in *Diprotodon* from which, or from some earlier still more generalized marsupial type, have diverged the

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^{*} Agrecably with the rule laid down by the great Founder of Palæontology; "La première chose à faire dans l'étude d'un animal fossile, est de reconnoître la forme de ses dents molaires; on détermine par-là s'il est carnivore ou herbivore, et dans ce dernier cas, ou peut s'assurer jusqu'à un certain point de l'ordre d'herbivores auquel il appartient," Cuvier, Ossemens Fossiles, 4to, vol. iii. 1812, p. 1 (Premier Mémoire).

three existing families with special modifications, respectively, for burrowing, climbing, and leaping; or, to borrow a figure from another hypothetical school, I might remark that the orders, or other natural groups, of placental Mammalia represented by members of the marsupial series have been indicated by different zoologists*, and with no material divergence of opinion; but not until now has evidence been received of a Marsupial representative of the proboscidian group.

In certain Mastodons there is a pair of incisive tusks below as well as above: the proboscidians maximize the rodent type as Diprotodon does the Marsupial one. The brain of the Elephant is essentially "lissencephalous," inasmuch as the cerebrum does not extend upon the cerebellum. This position of one primary mass of brain in front of the other is, as stated in the definitions of the subclasses of Mammalia in the cerebral system †, a more constant and important character than convolution of surface, which in both ly- and liss-encephala relates to the bulk of the species and of the brain. So, on the other hand, if a smooth cerebrum overlaps the cerebellum as in the Marmoset, it is essentially "gyrencephalous." The terms suggested by the superficial character which prevails, with exceptions, are arbitrary, but the most convenient for expressing the more constant characteristics of the brain therewith associated.

In the extinction of *Diprotodon*, as of *Megatherium*, there seems to be an additional exemplification of the fruitful and instructive principle which, under the phrases "contest for existence," or "battle of life," embodies the several circumstances, such as seasonal extremes, generative power, introduction of enemies, &c., under the influence of which a large and conspicuous quadruped is starved out, or falls a prey, while the smaller ones migrate, multiply, conceal themselves, and escape.

We infer from the fact of remains of young and inexperienced Diprotodons occurring in Australian Caverns with those of *Thylacoleo*, that the large Marsupial herbivore had its enemy in, and occasionally fell a victim to the large Marsupial Carnivore; as at the present day the Kangaroo is laid in wait for by the Thylacyne, or 'Native Wolf', and the Dasyure, or 'Native Cat.'

We may speculate upon the possible relation of the first introduction of the Human kind into Australia, and of the subsequent insulation of that land from the rest of the Papuan Continent, to the final extinction in the so restricted territory of all the charac-

- * "On dirait, en un mot, que les marsupiaux forment une classe distincte, parallèle à celle des quadrupèdes ordinaires et divisible en ordres semblables; en sorte que si on plaçait ces deux classes sur deux colonnes, les sarigues, dasyures et péramèles seraient, vis-à-vis des carnassiers insectivores à longues canines, tels que les tenrecs et les taupes; les phalangers et les potoroos, vis-à-vis des hérissons et des musaraignes; les kangaroos proprement dits, ne se laisseraient guère comparer à rien; mais les phascolomes devraient aller vis-à-vis des rongeurs."—Crvier, Règne Animal, ed. 1817, tom. i. p. 171. "Les ornithorhynches et les échidnés y formeraient un groupe parallèle à celui des édentés."—Op. cit. ed. 1829, tom. i. p. 174.
  - † Owen, "On the Characters &c. of the class Mammalia," Proceedings of the Linnean Society, 1857.
- ‡ I shall return to the question of the evidence of the carnivority of Thylacoleo in a subsequent communication,

teristic Mammals which happened to surpass in bulk the still existing, swift-retreating, saltatorial and nocturnal Kangaroos.

It is true that reliable evidence has not reached us of the contemporaneity of Man with *Diprotodon* in Australia. No human tooth or bone, no weapon fashioned by man, has hitherto been detected in the breccia-caves, or has been picked up in the lacustrine beds in South Australia, Queensland, and Melbourne, from which the largest and oldest Diprotodonts have been exhumed, mostly under conditions of petrifaction, suggestive of interment in those deposits during a vastly longer period than the Mammoths and Rhinoceroses have lain in our own brick-fields.

A human skeleton, or part of it, picked out of the deposits forming the bed of a tributuary of the Condamine, and yielding the same results of chemical analysis as are recorded of a Diprotodont fossil at p. 572, would be one of the much needed decisive and satisfactory evidences of the antiquity of Man. To promote the investigation in the Australian Continent which the present phase of the ancient history of our own species so much requires, I ventured some time ago to address the Legislature of New South Wales, and with results, as respects the aid and encouragement of such researches, which are given in the subjoined notes.

The range of Diprotodon australis, during the period of its existence, in the Australian Continent is shown by the evidence at present possessed to have been wide.

* "London, British Museum, 23rd February, 1867.

"Sia.—The enlarged and liberal views of your administration embolden me to suggest that a careful and systematic exploration of the Limestone-caves of Wellington Valley, discovered by the Colonial Surveyor in or about 1832, would be a work worthy of your encouragement.

- "The fossil remains which were then obtained from the caves revealed the important and suggestive fact that the marshpal type of structure prevailed in the ancient and extinct as in the existing quadrupeds of Australia.
- "Besides the great accession of such evidences as would accrue to the Museum at Sydney from such exploration, most instructive evidence may be expected bearing upon the antiquity and origin of the aboriginal races of Australia. Such contribution to buman knowledge, initiated and supported by New South Wales, would be gratefully appreciated by all who in this hemisphere are devoted to the progress of science, and would redound to the honour of your present constitutional Government.
- "I would willingly devote time to the determination and description of such specimens, or duplicates, as, so acquired, might be transmitted to me for that purpose, or be liberally sent for deposition in the British Museum; and these descriptions would be punctually transmitted to the Museum at Sydney, as materials of its Catalogue, or to such address as you might be pleased to indicate, in reference to a systematic description of the Wellington Valley Bone-caves.
- "I feel confident, from personal conference on the subject with the late Sir Thomas Mitchell, who confided to me the fossils he was able to bring over for description in his work published in 1838, that the results of the proposed exploration, in the hands of one qualified, would amply repay a grant, say of £200 or £300, if placed on the estimates and sanctioned by the Assembly.

"I have, &c., (Signed) "RICHARD OWEN, F.R.S."

"The Hon. HENRY PARKES, &c., Colonial Secretary, New South Wales."

Table of Localities of <i>Diprotodon australis</i> , showing:-	Table	of :	Localities	of	Diprotodon	australis.	showing :-
----------------------------------------------------------------	-------	------	------------	----	------------	------------	------------

Where found.	By whom.	Date.
Breecia-cavern, Wellington Valley*		
Tributaries of Condamine River, Darling Downs †		1842
Quaternary gravel, Mount Macedon, Melbourne #	E. C. Hobson, M.D	1843-45
Tributaries of Condamine River, Darling Downs §	Ludwig Leichhardt, M.D	1844
Freshwater beds, Mount Macedon, Melbourne #	Patrick Mayne, Esq	1844
Bone-caves, Wellington Valley	Count Strzelecki	1844
King's Creek, Darling Downs		1847
Gowrie, Darling Downs ¶	Fred. Neville Isaac, Esq	1849
Galtendaddai, Melville Plains	Wm. Buchanan, Esq.	1851
Creeks, Darling Downs	Henry Hughes, Esq	1856
Gowrie, Darling Downs		1860
Welcome Springs, South Australia**	Fred. Geo. Waterhouse, Esq	1861
Valley of Condamine ++	J. H. Hood, Esq.	1861
Portland Bay, South Australia	James S. Wilson, Esq	1860
Hergott's Springs, Mount Attraction, 500 miles N. of Adelaide ##	William Burrett, Esq	1861
Eton Vale, middle of Darling Downs	Edward S. Hill, Esq.	1863
St. Ruth Station, Tributary of Condamine River	Hugh Campbell, Esq	1865
St. Jean Station, Queensland		1865
Clifton Plains, Darling Downs	F. Nicholson, Esq.	1866
Breccia-cavern, Wellington Valley	Gerard Krefft, Esq	1866

To this letter I was favoured with the following reply:-

(Copy.)

"Colonial Secretary's Office, Sydney, New South Wales, 16th June, 1869.

"Sin,—With reference to your letter of the 23rd of February, 1867, recommending that the Government of this Colony should cause a careful and systematic exploration to be made of the Limestone-caves at Wellington Valley, I have now the honour to inform you that the sum of £200 has been voted by the local Parliament for carrying out your suggestion, and that the Curator of the Australian Museum has been charged with the duty of making the necessary exploration.

"I have the honour to be, Sir,

"Your most obedient Servant,

(Signed)

"JOHN ROBERTSON, Colonial Secretary."

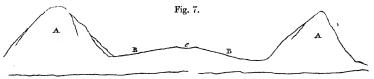
"To Professor Owen, F.R.S."

I was gratified by reading in 'The Times' of December 1st, 1869, a notice from the Sydney Correspondent of that Newspaper to the effect that "the Wellington Bone-caves have been explored by Dr. A. M. Thomson and Mr. Kreffr of the (Sydney) Museum, with astonishing and unexpected results."

- * See description of these Bone-caves by their discoverer in his 'Three Expeditions into the Interior of Eastern Australia,' 8vo, vol. ii. 1838.
- † Sir T. MITCHELL places the locality in lat. 28° S., long. 150° E.; and of the Condamine, he writes: "This stream is remarkable from forming large basins at some places and losing its course in swamps at others, and at other parts again cutting its course in a deep channel, through deep beds of alluvium, in which these bones of Diprotodon] are thus brought to light."—Letter dated January 3, 1542.
  - † Dr. Hosson, in transmitting these specimens, sent a sketch of the locality with the following Note:-
- "The country from Melbourne is volcanic the whole way; indeed the bank which borders the estuary on which the town is built is the commencement of vast elevated plains of volcanic origin, covered with vesicular lava, seriar, interrupted by deep ravines, which show on their steep sides, in many places, a regular columnar basaltic arrangement. Of this nature is the entire country betwixt Mount Macedon and Melbourne, gradually rising, but so slightly as to be almost imperceptible, till you arrive at the volcanic hills that immediately surround Mount Macedon, which is, I believe, composed of granite on its top, and of schistose slates on its side.

The fossils from Mount Macedon are less petrified than those from Darling Downs: the osseous substance crumbles away if not supplied with gelatine, like the fossil bones and tusks from our brick-earth in England.

"Amongst the secondary hills which skirt the base of Mount Macedon there is a considerable circular plane, which is more elevated in its centre than at its circumference, and which will be better explained by a diagram:—



- A. A. Volcanic Hills surrounding the plain.
- B B. The plain.
- c. A swamp or bog in which are found the bones at a depth of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  feet. After digging through a solid peaty soil for 3 feet you then arrive at a stratum of gravel about 18 inches thick, in which the bones are deposited. This layer of gravel rests upon a bed of firm clay, which is unfossiliferous.
- "The bog or marsh in which the bones are found is about four acres in extent, and appears to contain bones at every point. I opened two pits at 150 yards distance from each other and found bones in both, in the same stratum of gravel."—Letter dated January 1st, 1845.
- § The following valuable Note on the formations of the locality accompanied the transmission of the fossils, by the gifted and unfortunate explorer of that part of Australia:—
- The Darling Downs are extensive plains, formed by broad shallow valleys, without trees, covered only with grass and herbage, which grows luxuriantly on the rich black soil, in which concretions of carbonate of lime are frequently found. Ranges of low hills, forming long simple lines with sudden slopes and flat-topped cones, accompany these valleys, and have an open forest formed of various species of rather stunted Eucalyptus. All these hills are formed by a basaltic rock, containing frequently crystals of peridote, and being often cellular, sometimes real scoria. The base of the rock is, however, feldspathic; and, as the peridote is frequently absent, the rock becomes uniformly grey, forms a white globule before the blowpipe, and is therefore to be classed amongst the trachytes or phonolites. The plains are filled by an alluvium of considerable depth, as wells, dug 50-60' deep, have been sunk within it. The plains and creeks in which the fossil bones have been found are 'Mr. Hodgson's Creek,' Campbell's Creeks.' 'Mr. Isaac's Creek,' and 'Oaky Creek.'' They pass all into and through immense plains on the west side of the Coudamine, into which they fall. The bones are either found in the bed of the creek, particularly in the mud of dried up water-holes, or in the banks of the creeks in a red loamy breceia, or in a bed of pebbles, containing many trachytic pebbles of the coast range from the west side of which these creeks descend.
- "In the banks of the creeks you find at first the rich black soil of the plain, about 3' thick, then layers of clay and of loam, here and there, particularly at 'Isaac's Creek,' with marly concretions of strange irregular forms. The masses of these concretions are often of considerable thickness, though not extending far horizontally. The loam contains small broken pieces of ironstone (breecia) and is equally local. Below these the bed of pebbles lies. The bones found in the breecia are generally near the concretions, but not with them, or they occur amongst the pebbles. A very interesting fact is the presence of univalve and bivalve shells, which live still in the neighbouring water-holes, in the same beds, in which the bones are found. They are either intimately united with the bones by a marly cement, or they occur independently. The greatest depth in which bones are found is 12'. At 'Oaky Creek' we found them at the surface. Besides the bones of the gigantic animal, there are lower jaws and different parts of the skeleton of four other Kangaroos, many of them little different from the living ones, and probably identical with those of Wellington Valley. It seems to me that the conditions of life can have very little changed, as the same shells live still in similar water-holes. The want of food can

I subjoin the analysis of bones and teeth of *Diprotodon australis*, from the beds of the creeks, Darling Downs, by Walter Flight, D.Sc., Assistant in the Department of Mineralogy of the British Museum.

"Laboratory, Mineral Department, British Museum, 21st January, 1870.

- "Dear Sir,—I have the honour to lay before you a Report on the chemical examination of a portion of a jaw-bone of the Diprotodon, which was received from Professor Owen at the end of last year.
- "The method, devised by M. Scheurer-Kestner, and described by him in the 'Comptes Rendus,' vol. lxix. p. 1207, was employed in this inquiry, and the following analytical determinations were made.
- "1.2462 gramme of bone, treated with 108 cub. centims. of hydrogen chloride, of specific gravity 1.04 (from 5° to 6° Baumé), for twenty-two hours at ordinary temperatures, left a residue which, after having been dried at 100° C. till it ceased to lose weight, amounted to 0.1953 gramme, and, after ignition, to 0.1772 gramme. By this treatment the calcium phosphate, carbonate, and fluoride iron phosphate, &c., as well as the 'soluble osseine' of Scheurrer-Kestner, are taken up by the acid, and there remain 14.259 per cent. of insoluble mineral matter (chiefly silica coloured red with iron peroxide) and 1.452 per cent. loss of weight by ignition, which in the memoir alluded to is taken to be insoluble osseine.
- "The pounded bone, however, when heated did not change in colour to any great degree, nor emit the expected characteristic odour. A nitrogen determination was next made with the following result. 0.541 gramme of bone, heated with soda-lime, and the resulting platinum ammonium chloride ignited, gave 0.002 gramme of platinum. This amount of the metal corresponds with 0.00028 gramme of nitrogen. Assuming that gelatine contains 17.5 per cent. of nitrogen, the above nitrogen corresponds with 0.0016 gramme of osseine, or 0.295 per cent.
- "The bone therefore contains about \( \frac{1}{4} \) per cent. of osseine altogether; and the loss of weight, amounting to 1.452 per cent., and regarded by SCHEURER-KESTNER as due to insoluble osseine, must be ascribed to a further loss of water which was not expelled at the temperature of 100° C.
- "As the amount of matter insoluble in hydrogen chloride appeared unusually large (14:259 per cent.), it was thought that the action of the acid might not have been complete. In spite of my failing to detect phosphoric acid in this portion, I nevertheless thought it advisable to subject a further quantity of the bone to the action of a corresponding amount of acid of the same strength for a longer period. 1:0468 gramme of bone digested with 90:5 cub. centims. of hydrogen chloride for sixty-eight hours at ordinary temperatures left a residue weighing 0:1418 gramme, which, when ignited, was reduced to 0:1341 gramme. In this case, then, 12:81 per cent. of mineral matter remained undissolved, whilst the loss by ignition amounted to 0:735 per cent.
- "With a view to determine the water present in this bone, 2:5046 grammes were heated for several hours, first at 100° C, and after at 120° C,; the water lost amounted to 0:0932 gramme, or 3:721 per cent. After ignition and treatment with ammonium carbonate, the total loss was 0:1446, or 5:774 per cent. Subtracting

scarcely be the cause of their disappearing, as flocks of sheep and cattle pasture over their fossil remains. But as such an herbivore must have required a large body of water for his sustenance, the drainage of these plains, or the failing of those springs, the calcareous waters of which formed the concretions in the banks of the creeks, has been probably the cause of their retiring to more favourable localities, and I should not be surprised if I found them in the tropical interior, through which I am going to find my way to Pt. Essington."—Letter dated "Sydney, 10th July, 1844."

- "Found about 6 feet below the surface in sinking a well."-Note by Mr. MATNE.
- "In the 'red bank' of this [Isaac's] creek."-Note by Mr. Isaac.
- ** Found about 8 feet below the surface in sinking a well, lat. 137' 50" S., long. 39' 35" E.—Note by Mr. F. G. Waterhouse.
- ++ "From 100 feet below the surface, in digging a well, in the valley of the Condamine River."—Note by
- ## "They were taken from a bed of sand and quartz conglomerate, at a depth of about 5 feet."—Note by Mr. Burrett.

from this number the amount of osseine present (0.295 per cent.), there remain 5.479 per cent., the proportion of water present in the bone.

"It may be mentioned that the bone contained a considerable quantity of vivianite, which gave to portions of its interior a dull blue colour.

"Analysis of Substances filling cavity of tooth of Diprotodon [Pulp-cavity of lower incisor, Plate XLII. fig. 5, i.—R. O.].

"The nitrogen in a portion of the above, which had been dried for many hours at 100°, was determined by the usual method.

"0.9814 gramme of substance, heated with soda-lime, gave 0.0071 gramme platinum, which corresponds with 0.001 gramme nitrogen.

"Regarding this nitrogen as present in the form of osseine, and employing the number obtained by Frémy (17.5 per cent.) in his analysis of the gelatine of beef-bone as correctly representing the percentage of nitrogen in osseine, we find the substance from this fossil tooth to contain 0.58 per cent. of osseine.

"When heated in a tube it became slightly darker in colour, and emitted a faint empyreumatic odour.

"It was found to be composed of

Much carbonate lime,
Some phosphate lime,
Much silica, iron oxide, &c.,
Some water not removable at 100°,
The small portion of organic matter already mentioned.

"I am, dear Sir,

"Your obedient Servant,

"To Professor Story-Maskelyne,

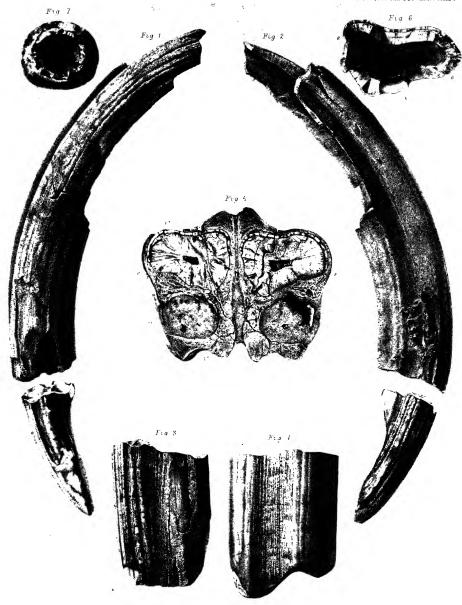
"WALTER FLIGHT."

Keeper of the Mineral Department, British Museum."

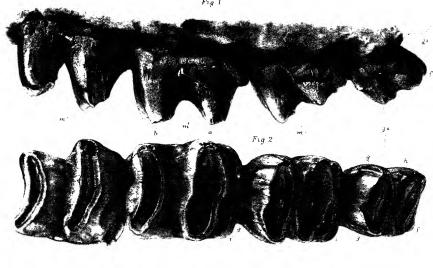
## TABLE OF ADMEASUREMENTS.

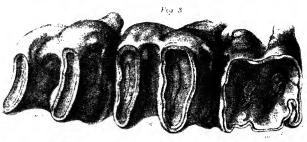
## Skull.

	Feet.	Inches.	Lines.	
Length from occipital condyle to fore end of premaxillary	3	0	0	
Breadth between outer sides of zygomata	1	6	0	
Depth to lower border of mandible at the orbit	1	10	0	
Depth to outlet of socket of upper m 1, at the orbit	1	0	0	
Breadth of occiput	1	1	0	
From lower border of foramen magnum to middle of superoccipital ridge	0	9	9	
Breadth of cranium at middle of temporal fossa and at the level of the				
upper part of the zygomata	0	6	6	
Depth of facial part anterior to the orbit	0	8	0	
Depth of facial part at fore end of nasals	0	10	0	
Depth of zygoma at the lower end of the malomaxillary suture	0	4	0	
Length of mandible from back of condyle to outlet of incisive sockets	2	0	0	
Depth from summit of coracoid process	1	1	0	
Fore-and-aft breadth of ascending ramus	0	7	0	
Depth of horizontal ramus at the socket of m 1	0	5	0	
Length of symphysis	0	6	0	
Greatest depth of symphysis	0	3	6	
Length of upper incisive alveolar series	0	4	6	
Length of upper molar alveolar series	0	8	6	
Length of lower molar alveolar series	0	9	0	



GH Ford



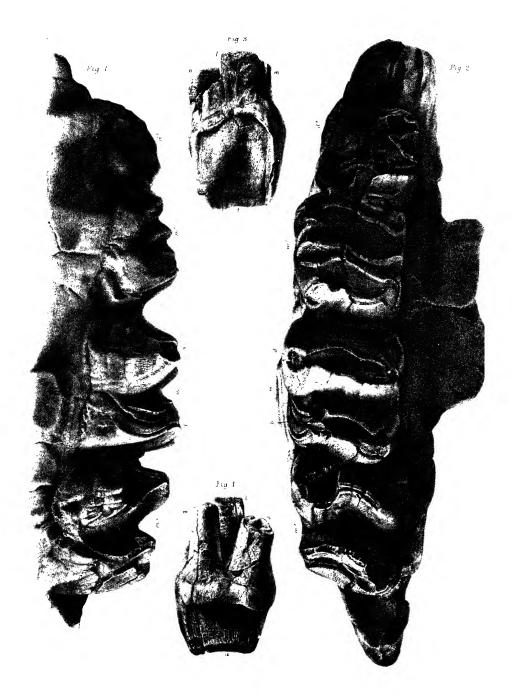








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#### DESCRIPTION OF THE PLATES.

## PLATE XXXV.

- Fig. 1. Side view of skull of Diprotodon australis:—one-fifth nat. size.
- Fig. 2. Back view of skull of Diprotodon australis: one-fifth nat. size.
- Fig. 3. Front view of skull of Diprotodon australis: one-fifth nat. size.
- Fig. 4. Proportions of malar and squamosal forming glenoid cavity:—one-fifth nat, size.
- Fig. 5. Side view of skull, in outline, of Macropus laniger -- one-fifth nat. size.

## PLATE XXXVI.

- Fig. 1. Outer side of first incisor. upper jaw:-nat. size.
- Fig. 2. Inner side of first incisor, upper jaw:—nat. size.

  [An extent of an inch of the tooth is wanting at the place of fracture.]
- Fig. 3. Outer or enamelled side of working extremity of a first incisor.
- Fig. 4. Outer or enamelled side of working extremity of a first incisor from another individual.
- Fig. 5. Section, vertical and transverse, of premaxillary alveoli, with the first incisors, i1, in situ: 12. end of the socket of the second incisor; i3, part of that of the third incisor.
- Fig. 6. Basal or inserted end of first incisor; the margin mutilated.
- Fig. 7. Basal or inserted end of second incisor.

All the figures are of the natural size.

#### PLATE XXXVII.

- Fig. 1. Outer side view of the right upper molars, in situ, of probably a female Diprotodon.
- Fig. 2. Grinding-surface of ditto.
- Fig. 3. The three last molars of another Diprotodon.
- Fig. 4. Grinding-surface of crown of last molar (m 3) of a larger Diprotodon
- Fig. 5. Front view of the same tooth.
- Fig. 6. Back view of the same tooth.

All the figures are of the natural size

# PLATE XXXVIII,

- Fig. 1. Outer side view of the right upper molars, in situ, of a large, probably male, Diprotodon.
- Fig. 2. Grinding-surface of ditto, with part of bony palate.
- Fig. 3. Hind surface of last molar (m 3) of another Diprotodon.
- Fig. 4. Front surface of the same tooth.

All the figures are of the natural size.

## PLATE XXXIX.

- Fig. 1. Outside view of last upper molar (m 3) of a small, probably female, Diprotodon.
- Fig. 2. Outside view of last upper molar (m 3) of a larger, probably male, Diprotodon.
- Fig. 3. Sockets and ends of roots of penultimate and last upper molars.
- Fig. 4. Outside view of lower incisor [an extent of an inch is wanting at the place of fracture].
- Fig. 5. Working surface of exposed end of lower incisor
- Fig. 6. Transverse section at its emergence from the socket.
- Fig. 7. Side view of second upper incisor (i2).
- Fig. 8. Working surface of the same tooth.

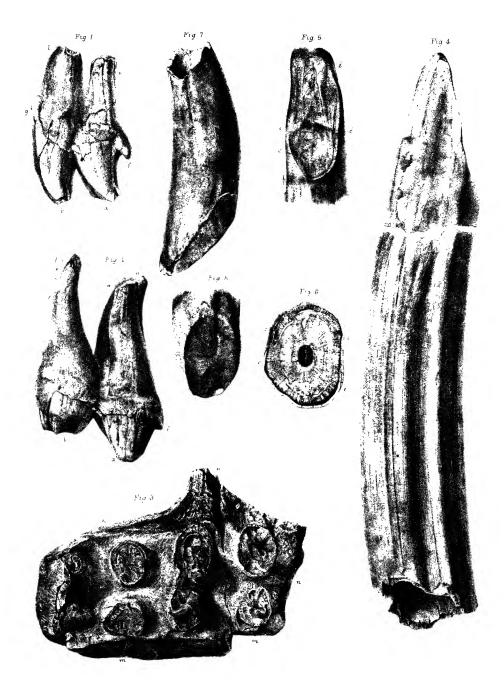
# PLATE XL.

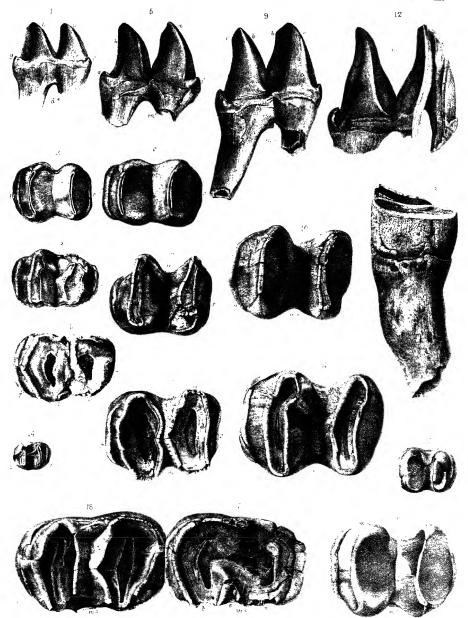
# Molar teeth of the lower jaw.

- Fig. 1. Outer side view of second molar (d 4) of a young Diprotodon.
- Fig. 2. Working surface of second molar (d 4) of a young Diprotodon.
- Fig. 3. Working surface of second molar of an older, probably female, Diprotodon.
- Fig. 4. Working surface of second molar of an old, probably male, Diprotodon
- Fig. 5. Outer side view of third molar (m 1) of a young Inprotodon.
- Fig. 6. Working surface of third molar (m 1) of a young Diprotodon
- Fig. 7. Working surface of third molar (m1) of an older, probably female, Diprotodon.
- Fig. 8. Working surface of third molar (m1) of an old, probably male, Diprotodon.
- Fig. 9. Outer side view of fourth molar (m 2) of a young Diprotodon
- Fig. 10. Working surface of fourth molar (m2) of a young Diprotodon
- Fig. 11. Working surface of fourth molar (m 2) of mature, probably male, Deprotodon.
- Fig. 12. Outer side view of crown of germ of fifth molar of a young Diprotodon
- Fig. 13. Front view of fifth molar of a mature Diprotodom.
- Fig. 14. Working surface of penultimate lower molar of Macropus Atlas
- Fig. 15. Working surface of penultimate lower molar of a Malayan Tapir
- Fig. 16. Working surface of crown of incomplete fifth molar of a young Diprotodon.
- Fig. 17. Working surface of penultimate molar (m 2) of an old Diprotodon.
- Fig. 18. Working surface of last molar (m 3) of an old Diprotodon.
  Figures 1, 2, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 16 are from the same individual.
  All the figures are of the natural size.

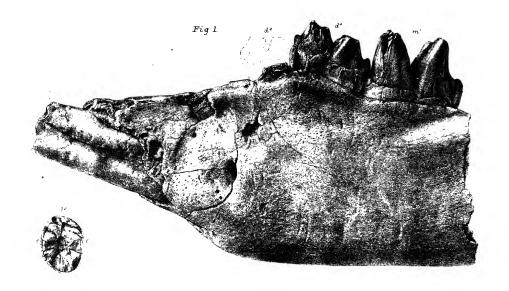
### PLATE XLI.

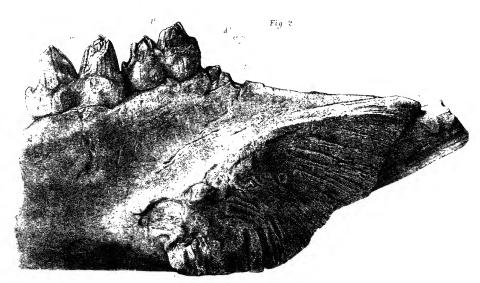
- Fig. 1. Outside view of anterior part of mandible and teeth (i1, d4, m1) of an immature Diprotodon: the first molar (d3) is given in outline.
- Fig. 2 Inside view of anterior part of the same mandible and teeth (i1, d3 restored in outline, d4, m1).



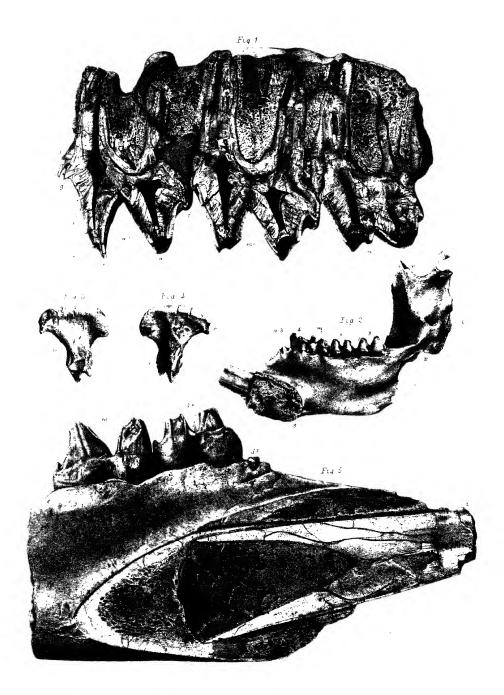






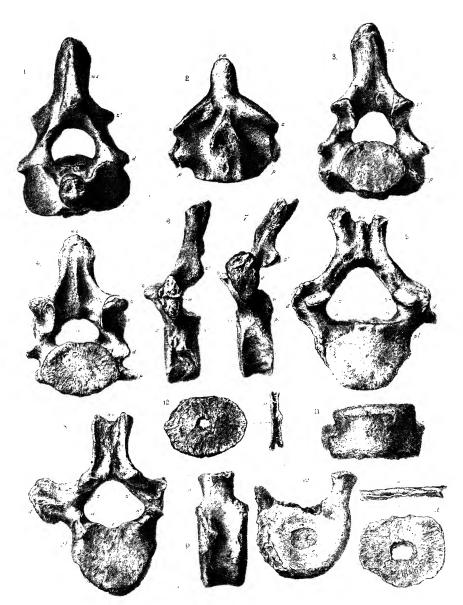


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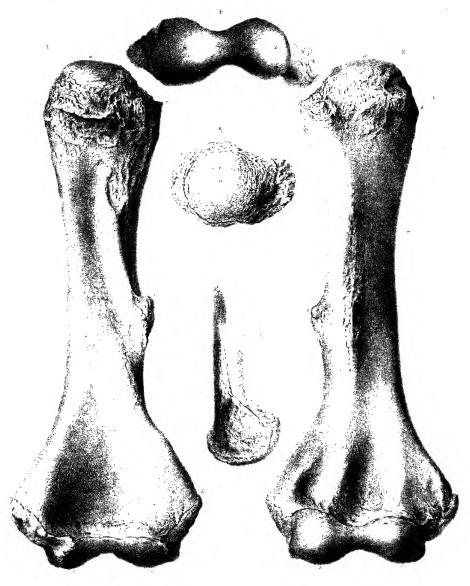
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#### PLATE XLII.

- Fig. 1. Section of upper molars (m 1, m 2, m 3) of a mature, not old, Diprotodon.
- Fig. 2. Inside view of mandible and teeth of ditto: reduced to one-sixth.
- Fig. 3. Back view of mandibular condyle: reduced to one-sixth.
- Fig. 4. Front view of ditto.
- Fig. 5. Section of anterior part of mandible and incisor tusk of an immature Diprotodom.

# PLATE XLIII.

- Fig. 1. Axis, or vertebra dentata:—nat. size.
- Fig. 2. Portion of atlas vertebra:—nat size.

## PLATE XLIV.

- Fig. 1. Front view of axis.
- Fig. 2. Under view of axis.
- Fig. 3. Back view of axis.
- Fig. 4. Back view of third cervical vertebra.
- Fig. 5. Back view of an anterior dorsal vertebra.
- Fig. 6. Side view of the same dorsal vertebra.
- Fig. 7. Side view of a succeeding dorsal vertebra.
- Fig. 8. Back view of the same vertebra.
- Fig. 9. Side view of the body of a lumbar vertebra.
- Fig. 10. Back view of ditto.
- Fig. 11. Under view of ditto.
- Fig. 12. Epiphyses of the body of a cervical vertebra a, edge- or side-view.
- Fig. 13. Epiphyses of the body of a lumbar vertebra a, edge-view.

All the figures are one-third the natural size

#### PLATE XLV.

- Fig. 1. Outer surface or "dorsum" of the left scapula.
- Fig. 2. Inner or subscapular surface of the left scapula.
- Fig. 3. Articular end, with glenoid cavity of the left scapula

One-third the nat size

#### PLATE XLVI.

- Fig. 1. Back view of left humerus.
- Fig. 2. Front view of left humerus.
- Fig. 3. Proximal end of left humerus.
- Fig. 4. Distal end of left humerus.
- Fig. 5. Inner side view of distal third of a right humerus.

One-third the nat. size.

# PLATE XIVII

- Fig 1. Under or "humal" view of the pelvis
- Fig 2 Upper or "neural" view of the mortum and right half of the petris.
- Fig. 8. Front view of the sacrum.
- Fig. 4. Acetabular cavity.

[See 'Admensurements' in text for scale of reduction.]

# PLATE XLVIII.

- Fig. 1. Front view of femur.
- Fig. 2. Outside view of femur.
- Fig. 3. Section of middle of shaft of femur.
- Fig. 4. Lower articular end of femur.
- Fig. 5. Inside view of lower end of femur.

One-third nat. size.

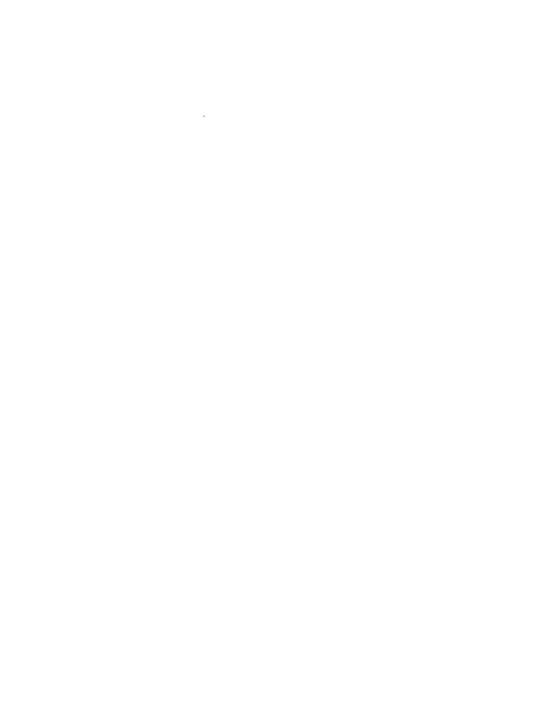
# PLATE XLIX.

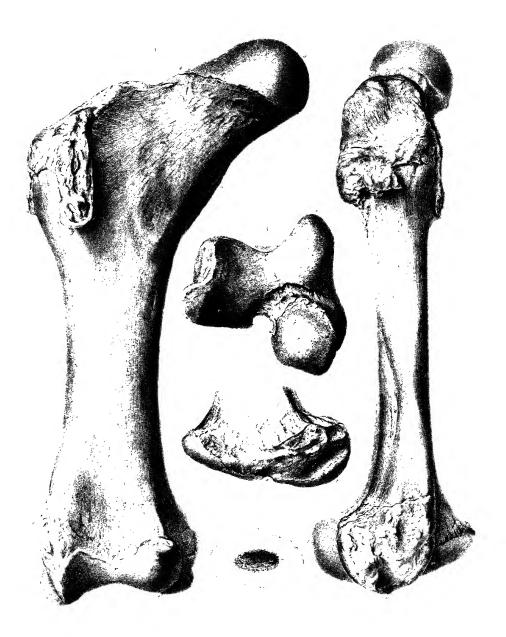
- Fig. 1. Hind view of femur
- Fig. 2. Front view of tibia.
- Fig. 3. Outside view of tibia.
- Fig. 4. Upper end of tibia.
- Fig. 5. Lower end of tibra.

## Plate L.

Restoration of the skeleton of Diprotodon australis: -one-twelfth nat. size.







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XXIV. On the Values of the Integral  $\int_0^1 Q_n Q_{n'} d\mu$ ,  $Q_n$ ,  $Q_{n'}$  being Laplace's Coefficients of the Orders n, n', with an application to the Theory of Radiation. By the Hon. J. W. Strutt, Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Communicated by W. Stottiswoode, F.R.S.

Received May 17,-Read June 16, 1870.

In the course of an investigation concerning the potential function which is subject to conditions at the surface of a sphere which vary discontinuously in passing from one hemisphere to the other, it became necessary to know the values of the integral

$$\int_{a}^{1} Q_{n} Q_{n} d\mu,$$

 $Q_n$ ,  $Q_{n'}$  being LAPLACE's coefficients of the orders n, n' respectively. The expression for  $Q_n$  in terms of  $\mu$  is

$$Q_n = \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n-1)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot n} \Big\{ \mu^n - \frac{n(n-1)}{2 \cdot (2n-1)} \mu^{n-2} + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)}{2 \cdot 4(2n-1)(2n-3)} \mu^{n-4} - \dots \Big\}^{\frac{n}{2}};$$

but the multiplication of two such series together and subsequent integration with respect to  $\mu$  would be very laborious even for moderate values of n and n'.

By the following method the values of the integrals in question may be obtained without much trouble. According to the definition of the functions Q,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+e^2-2e\mu}} = 1 + Q_1e + Q_2e^2 + \dots + Q_ne^n + \dots$$

so that

$$\int_{0}^{1} \frac{d\mu}{\sqrt{1+e^{2}-2e\mu}\sqrt{1+e^{2}-2e'\mu}} = \sum_{n=0}^{n=\infty} \sum_{n'=0}^{n'=\infty} \int_{0}^{1} Q_{n}Q_{n}d\mu \cdot e^{n}e'^{n'},$$

which shows that  $\int_0^1 Q_n Q_n d\mu$  is the coefficient of  $e^n e^{nt}$  in the expansion of the integral on the left in powers of e and e'.

On effecting the integration and reducing, we obtain as the quantity to be expanded,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{ee'}} \log \frac{(1+\sqrt{ee'})(\sqrt{e}-\sqrt{e'})}{\sqrt{e}\sqrt{1+e'^2}-\sqrt{e'}\sqrt{1+e^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{ee'}} \log (1+\sqrt{ee'}) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{ee'}} \left\{ \log \sqrt{1+e^2} + \log \frac{1-\sqrt{\frac{1+e'^2}{1+e^2}}\sqrt{e}}{1-\sqrt{\frac{e}{e'}}} \right\} \\
= \frac{1}{\sqrt{ee'}} \left\{ (ee')^{\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{ee'}{2} + \frac{(ee')^{\frac{3}{2}}}{3} - \frac{(ee')^2}{4} + \dots \right\}$$

* Thomson and Tair's Natural Philosophy, p. 624.

Since we know à priori that the expansion will only contain whole positive powers of e, we may leave out all the terms in  $e^{\frac{1}{2}}e^{\frac{2}{3}}$ .... (no negative powers of e occur)*. We thus obtain

$$\begin{aligned} &1 + \frac{ee'}{3} + \frac{(ee')^2}{5} + \frac{(ee')^3}{7} + \frac{(ee')^4}{9} + \dots \\ &+ \frac{1}{e'} \left\{ \left( \frac{1 + e'^2}{1 + e^3} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} - 1 \right. \right\} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{e}{e^3} \left\{ \left( \frac{1 + e'^2}{1 + e^3} \right)^{\frac{3}{3}} - 1 \right\} \\ &+ \frac{1}{5} \frac{e^3}{e'^3} \left\{ \left( \frac{1 + e'^2}{1 + e^2} \right)^{\frac{4}{3}} - 1 \right\} + \frac{1}{7} \frac{e^3}{e'^4} \left\{ \left( \frac{1 + e'^2}{1 + e^2} \right)^{\frac{7}{3}} - 1 \right\} \\ &+ \frac{1}{9} \frac{e^4}{e'^5} \left\{ \left( \frac{1 + e'^2}{1 + e^2} \right)^{\frac{4}{3}} - 1 \right\} + \frac{1}{11} \frac{e^5}{e'^6} \left\{ \left( \frac{1 + e'^2}{1 + e^2} \right)^{\frac{11}{3}} - 1 \right\} \\ &+ \dots \end{aligned}$$

In this all terms containing negative powers of e' may be thrown away, as they must finally disappear even if retained. The terms on the left after the first line contain only even powers of e, and those on the right only odd. It appears, too, that with the even powers of e go the odd of e', and conversely. Hence if n, n' be both even or both odd there is no part of the coefficient of  $e^n e'^{n'}$  to be found after the first line, and none in the first line unless n=n'. Thus

$$\int_0^1 \mathbf{Q}_n \mathbf{Q}_{n'} \, d\mu = 0$$

if n, n' are both odd or both even, unless they are the same, in which case

$$\int_{0}^{1} (\mathbf{Q}_{n})^{2} d\mu = \frac{1}{2n+1}.$$

* Professor Carley has remarked that the finite expression itself may be modified so as to get rid of these terms, and then becomes

$$\frac{1}{2\sqrt{e\epsilon'}}\log\frac{1+\sqrt{e\epsilon'}}{1-\sqrt{e\epsilon'}} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{e\epsilon'}}\left\{\log\frac{1+\sqrt{\frac{e(1+\epsilon'^2)}{\epsilon(1+\epsilon'^2)}}}{1-\sqrt{\frac{e(1+\epsilon'^2)}{\epsilon(1+\epsilon'^2)}}} - \log\frac{1+\sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon'}}}{1-\sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon'}}}\right\}$$

For so far as the terms containing fractional powers of x are concerned,

$$\log (1 + \sqrt{x})$$
 and  $\frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1 + \sqrt{x}}{1 - \sqrt{x}}$ 

are identical .- (Nov. 1870.)

These results* are immediate consequences of what is known with respect to the values of the integrals

$$\int_{-1}^{+1} \mathbf{Q}_n \mathbf{Q}_{n'} \, d\mu,$$

in which the integration extends over the whole sphere; for if n, n' are both odd or both even,  $Q_nQ_n$  is an even function of  $\mu$ , and so

$$\int_{-1}^{0} \mathbf{Q}_{n} \mathbf{Q}_{n'} d\mu = \int_{0}^{1} \mathbf{Q}_{n} \mathbf{Q}_{n'} d\mu.$$

The peculiar character of the integrals over the hemisphere only shows itself when one of the quantities n, n' is even and the other odd.

The coefficient of  $e^0$  in the expansion is  $1 + \frac{(1+e^{iz})^{\frac{1}{2}}-1}{e^i}$ ;

$$\begin{split} \text{coefficient of } e^2 &= \frac{e^{l^2}}{5} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{e^l} + \frac{1}{5} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{5}{2}} - 1}{e^{l^3}} \,; \\ \text{coefficient of } e^4 &= \frac{e^{l^4}}{9} + \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2^2 \cdot 2} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{e^l} - \frac{5}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{5} \frac{(\overline{1 + e^{l^2}})^{\frac{5}{2}}}{e^{l^3}} + \frac{1}{9} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{5}{2}} - 1}{e^{l^5}} \,; \\ \text{coefficient of } e^6 &= \frac{e^{l^6}}{13} - \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{2^3 \mid 3} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{e^l} + \frac{5 \cdot 7}{2^3 \cdot 2} \cdot \frac{1}{5} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{5}{2}}}{e^{l^3}} - \frac{9}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{9} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{5}{2}}}{e^{l^5}} + \frac{1}{13} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{13}{2}} - 1}{e^{l^7}} \,; \\ \text{coefficient of } e^8 &= \frac{e^{l^8}}{17} + \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7}{2^4 \cdot \frac{1}{4}} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{e^l} - \frac{5 \cdot 7 \cdot 9}{2^5 \mid 3} \cdot \frac{1}{5} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{e^{l^5}} \\ &+ \frac{9 \cdot 11}{2^2 \cdot 2} \cdot \frac{1}{9} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{3}{2}}}{e^{l^5}} - \frac{13}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{13} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{13}{2}}}{e^{l^7}} + \frac{1}{17} \frac{(1 + e^{l^2})^{\frac{17}{2}} - 1}{e^{l^7}}. \end{split}$$

The law of formation of these series is obvious, and the coefficient of  $e^{2n}$  could, if necessary, be written down.

From the symmetry of the original expression in e and e' we know that the coefficient of  $e^ne'^n$  must be the same as that of  $e^ne'^n$ ; so that, in order to obtain all the integrals required, it is not absolutely necessary to consider the coefficients of odd powers of e.

Nevertheless, in the calculation for instance of  $\int_0^1 Q_i Q_{i0} d\mu$ , it would be much easier to obtain it as the coefficient of  $e'^{10}$  in the series which multiplies e, than as the coefficient of e' in the series which multiplies  $e^{10}$ .

The coefficient of e

$$= \frac{e^{l}}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{(1 + e^{l2})^{\frac{3}{2}} - 1}{e^{l2}};$$

coefficient of es

$$=\frac{e^{i\frac{3}{7}}-\frac{3}{2}\cdot\frac{1}{3}\frac{(1+e^{i\frac{2}{3}})^{\frac{5}{2}}}{e^{i\frac{2}{3}}}+\frac{1}{7}\frac{(1+e^{i\frac{2}{3}})^{\frac{7}{2}}-1}{e^{i\frac{2}{3}}};$$

* They would, of course, be more simply obtained by taking the integration in the first instance from  $\mu = -1$  to  $\mu = +1$ .—(Nov. 1870.)

coefficient of e5

$$=\!\!\frac{e^{t5}}{11}\!+\!\frac{3\cdot 5}{2^2\!1^2}\cdot\frac{1}{3}\frac{(1+e^{t2})^{\frac{3}{2}}}{e^{t^2}}\!-\!\frac{7}{2}\cdot\!\frac{1}{7}\frac{(1+e^{t2})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{e^{t4}}\!+\!\frac{1}{11}\frac{(1+e^{t2})^{\frac{11}{2}}\!-\!1}{e^{t6}};$$

coefficient of e7

$$\begin{split} &= \frac{e'^7}{15} - \frac{3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7}{2^3 (3)} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \frac{(1 + e'^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}{e'^2} + \frac{7 \cdot 9}{2^3 (2)} \cdot \frac{1}{7} \frac{(1 + e'^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{e'^4} \\ &- \frac{11}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{11} \frac{(1 + e'^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{e'^6} + \frac{1}{15} \frac{(1 + e'^2)^{\frac{14}{2}}}{e'^6} - \frac{1}{3}; \end{split}$$

and so on. From these series the coefficients of  $e^n e'^{n'}$  for moderate values of n and n' may be calculated with facility.

It is desirable to know the limit of the integral  $\int_0^1 Q_n Q_n d\mu$  when n becomes very large, n' remaining finite. A distinction is necessary according as it is the even or the odd suffix which is supposed to increase without limit.

The whole coefficient of  $e^{2n}$  is a sum of terms of the form  $\frac{(1+e^{\ell^2})^{\frac{4m+1}{2}}}{e^{\ell 2m+1}}$ , where m is zero, or any positive integer, each term multiplied by a numerical factor, which may be regarded as a function of n and m. The general term in the expansion of  $\frac{(1+e^{\ell^2})^{\frac{4m+1}{2}}}{e^{\ell 2m+1}}$  in powers of  $e^{\ell}$  is

$$e^{^{(2r-2m-1)}}\frac{(4m+1)\left(4m-1\right)....3.1.1.3...\left(2r-4m-3\right)}{2^{r}|r},$$

irrespective of sign.

If we put 2r-2m-1=2n'-1, it becomes

$$e^{i2n'-1} \frac{(4m+1)(4m-1)\dots 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots (2n'-2m-3)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot \dots (2n'+2m)}$$

The coefficient of  $e^{2n}e^{t2n'-1}$  is thus a series of terms of the form

$$\frac{(4m+1)....1.1....(2n'-2m-3)}{2.4.6...(2n'+2m)},$$

each term multiplied by a factor depending on n and m but independent of n'. The question is which term has the predominance when n' increases without limit? It appears that it is the one corresponding to m=0; for the ratio of this to the general term is

$$\frac{1.1.3....(2n'-3)}{(4m+1)....11....(2n'-2m-3)} \cdot \frac{2.4.....(2n'+2m)}{2.4....2n'}$$

$$= \frac{(2n'-2m-1).....(2n'-3) \times (2n'+2).....(2n'+2m)}{(4m+1)(4m-1)...1},$$

a fraction which increases without limit with n'.

The value of  $\int_0^1 Q_{2n}Q_{2n'-1} d\mu$ , when n' is indefinitely great, is therefore identical with the coefficient of  $e^{t_{2n'}-1}$  in the expansion of

$$\frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n-1) \cdot (1+e^{t_2})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot \dots \cdot 2n} \cdot e^{t}.$$

Now

$$\frac{(1+e'^{q})^{\frac{1}{q}}}{e'} = \frac{1}{e'} + \frac{1}{2}e' + \dots \pm \frac{1 \cdot 1 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n'-3)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot \dots \cdot 2n'}e'^{2n'-1};$$

and by a known theorem, when n' is indefinitely great

$$\frac{1.1.3....(2n'-3)}{2.4.6...2n'} = \frac{1}{2n'-1} \frac{1}{\pi^{\frac{1}{2}n'\frac{1}{2}}}.$$

Finally, therefore,  $\int_0^1 Q_{2n}Q_{2n'-1} d\mu$ , when n' increases without limit, takes ultimately the form  $\pm \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \dots (2n-1)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \dots (2n)} \frac{1}{q_n \frac{1}{2} n'^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ .

If n be very great (though infinitely small, perhaps, compared to n') this becomes  $\pm \frac{1}{2\pi n^2 n'^2}$ . In a similar manner it may be proved that the limit of  $\int_0^1 Q_{2n-1}Q_{2n'}d\mu$ , when n' increases indefinitely, is

$$\pm \frac{3.5.7...(2n-1)}{2.4.6....(2n-2)} \cdot \frac{1}{4\pi^{\frac{1}{2}n/\frac{d}{2}}}$$

If, now, n increases without limit, we obtain

$$\frac{n^{\frac{1}{2}}}{2\pi n'^{\frac{5}{2}}}.$$

There is no inconsistency in the non-agreement of the values found when n and n' are indefinitely great, for the limiting circumstances contemplated in the two cases are in reality quite different. It may be convenient for the sake of comparison to repeat here the equation

$$\int_{0}^{1} (Q_{n})^{2} d\mu = \frac{1}{2n+1},$$

which is true whether n be great or small.

The annexed Table contains the exact numerical values of the integrals for which neither suffix is greater than eleven. If we fix our attention on a given value of n (say 6), while n' varies, we see that the integrals, or, rather, those of them which do not vanish, begin by being alternately opposite in sign, and increase in value up to n'=n-1; that when n'=n a change of sign is missed, and that for greater values of n' the regular alternation of sign is reestablished in conjunction with a steady diminution in numerical value.

This is in accordance with what might have been expected from the general character of the functions Q. They have their maximum (arithmetical as well as algebraical) value, namely unity, when  $\mu=1$ , an even function,  $Q_{2n}$ , vanishing n times, and an odd function,  $Q_{2n+1}$ , vanishing n+1 times for values of  $\mu$  ranging from 0 to 1 inclusive.

Q ₁₃ .	13.33	0		0		0		Đ		0		Q
Q ₁₁ .	0	85 S	0	į	0		0	i	0	i	0	i
Q ₁₃ .	33	0	273	0	1001 24.9	0	i	•	i	0	i	0
Q15.	0	3 2048	0	:	0		0	i	0		0	i
Qur.	21 1024	0.	11 200	0	297	0	2 ls	0	1617	0	396 <u>9</u>	23
Q10.	0	3.20	0	7.91	0	189	0	383	0	3969	1 2 1	3969 6962
ď	7 256	0	15	Đ	23 E2	0	525	0	1225 2 ¹⁵	1 19	3969	0
۵.	0	-   <del>6</del> 3	0	<b>1</b> -18%	0	25 123	0	1225	17	1925	0	1617
Q		0	5.2	0	3.21	0	25 %	1 15	1225 2 ¹⁵	0	383	0
o	0	128	0	- 188	0	20 S	13	8 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	0	525	0	11 20
Q.	1 16	0	128	0	921	-,=	8 8 8 St	0	25.	0	189	0
Q.	0	1 48	0	128	1 9	921	0	3.2	0	7. cc	0	297
ò.	'x	0	100	-15-	921	0	-18	0	r- 25	0	7.9	0
ď	0	-100	- 120	-120	0	128	0	7.2ª	0	15 legs	0	1 g
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J'anand	ජී	Q,	8	ő	ď	ď	Q,	6	තී	ď	d ₁₀	Q ₁₁

When, therefore, one of the quantities n, n' is large and the other not nearly equal to it,  $Q_nQ_{n'}$  is affected with a sign rapidly alternating, and consequently the value of the  $\int_0^1 Q_nQ_{n'}d\mu$  is comparatively very small. But if n and n' are nearly equal, the functions  $Q_n, Q_{n'}$  in spite of the rapid alternation, keep together as it were in sign for a considerable fraction of the range of integration, and so the value of the integral is largely increased.

Again, for all cases included in the Table it will be found that

$$\int_0^1 \mathbf{Q}_{2n} \mathbf{Q}_{2n-1} d\mu = \int_0^1 \mathbf{Q}_{2n} \mathbf{Q}_{2n+1} d\mu,$$

a relation which is evidently general, although not very easily proved to be so. After a good deal of trouble I arrived at the following demonstration:—

If in the expression

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{ee'}}\log\frac{(1+\sqrt{ee'})\left(1-\sqrt{\frac{e}{e'}}\right)}{\sqrt{1+e^2}-\sqrt{\frac{e}{e'}}\sqrt{1+e'^2}},$$

whose expansion gives the integrals under consideration, we put

$$ee'=x, \quad \frac{e}{e'}=y,$$

we obtain

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}\log\frac{(1+\sqrt{x})(1-\sqrt{y})}{\sqrt{1+xy}-\sqrt{y}\sqrt{1+\frac{x}{y}}}.$$

In consequence of the symmetry of this in respect to y and  $\frac{1}{y}$ , it may be expanded in a series of positive and negative powers of  $\sqrt{y}$  of the form

$$A_0 + A_1 \left( \sqrt{y} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{y}} \right) + A_2 \left( y + \frac{1}{y} \right) + A_3 \left( y^{\frac{n}{2}} + y^{-\frac{n}{2}} \right) + \dots,$$

 $A_0, A_1, \ldots$  being functions of x.

The terms that we are engaged in examining are those in  $\sqrt{y}$  or  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{y}}$ , so that the question reduces itself to the determination of  $A_1$  as a function of x, or at least an examination of its nature.

Now  $A_1$  is the term independent of y after differentiation of the series with respect to  $\sqrt{y}$ . Hence

$$A_1 = \text{term independent of } y \text{ in } \frac{d}{d\sqrt{y}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} \log \frac{(1+\sqrt{x})(1-\sqrt{y})}{\sqrt{1+xy}-\sqrt{y}} \sqrt{1+\frac{x}{y}}$$

On differentiation and reduction we arrive at the expression

$$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{x(1-y)}} + \frac{1+x}{\sqrt{x}}(1-y)^{-1} \left\{ 1 + x^2 + x\left(y + \frac{1}{y}\right) \right\}^{-\frac{1}{2}},$$

from which the part independent of y has to be selected.

From the first term we have simply  $\frac{-1}{\sqrt{x}}$ . As for the second,

$$\begin{split} \left\{1 + x^2 + x \left(y + \frac{1}{y}\right)\right\}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= (1 + x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left\{1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{x}{1 + x^2} \left(y + \frac{1}{y}\right) + \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2^2 \left[2} \frac{x^2}{(1 + x^2)^2} \left(y + \frac{1}{y}\right)^2 + \cdots\right] \right\} \\ &- \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{2^3 \left[3} \frac{x^3}{(1 + x^2)^3} \left(y + \frac{1}{y}\right)^3 + \cdots\right] \cdot \end{split}$$

The term in  $(y+\frac{1}{y})(1+y+y^2+y^3+...)$  independent of y is 1.

The term in  $\left(y+\frac{1}{y}\right)^{3}(1+y+y^{2}+\ldots)$  is 1+3, and generally, if n be odd, the part independent of y in

$$\left(y+\frac{1}{y}\right)^{n}(1-y)^{-1}$$
 is  $\frac{1}{2}(1+1)^{n}=\frac{1}{2}\cdot 2^{n}$ .

Thus the term in  $\left\{1+x^2+x\left(y+\frac{1}{y}\right)\right\}^{-\frac{1}{2}}(1-y)^{-1}$  independent of y

$$= (1+x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \frac{x}{1+x^2} \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 - \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{2^3 \cdot 3} \frac{x^3}{(1+x^2)^3} \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2^2 \right\} \\ - \dots + \text{an even function of } x$$

$$= \frac{(1+x^2)^{-1}}{2} \left\{ \begin{aligned} 1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2x}{1+x^2} + \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2^2 \cdot 2} \frac{(2x)^2}{(1+x^2)^2} - \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{2^3 \cdot 3} \frac{(2x)^3}{(1+x^2)^3} \\ + \dots + \text{ an even function of } x \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{(1+x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}}{2} \left[ \left\{ 1 + \frac{2x}{1+x^2} \right\}^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \text{ even function of } x \right]$$

$$=\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{1+x}$$
 + an even function of  $x$ .

Finally, therefore,

$$A_1 = -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} + \frac{1+x}{\sqrt{x}} \{ a_0 + a_2 x^2 + a_4 x^4 + \dots \},$$

where  $a_0$ ,  $a_2$ ... are unknown coefficients, of which we will only determine  $a_0$  by a reference to the expression from which  $A_1$  was obtained, which shows that

$$-\frac{1}{3}+a_0=0$$
,

so that

$$A_1 = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{x} + a_2 x^{\frac{3}{2}} + a_2 x^{\frac{5}{2}} + a_4 x^{\frac{5}{2}} + a_4 x^{\frac{5}{2}} + \dots$$

Multiplying by  $\sqrt{y}$  and replacing e and e',

$$A \sqrt{y} = \frac{1}{2}e + a_2e^2e' + a_2e^3e'^2 + a_4e^4e'^3 + a_4e^5e'^4 + a_6e^6e'^5 + a_6e^7e'^6 + \dots$$

These are the only terms in the expansion of  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{ee'}} \log \frac{(1+\sqrt{ee'})\left(1-\sqrt{\frac{e}{\ell'}}\right)}{\sqrt{1+e^2}-\sqrt{\frac{e}{\ell'}}\sqrt{1+e'^2}}$  in which

the index of e is one higher than that of e'.

Having regard, now, to the symmetry in e and e', we see that generally

$$\int_0^1 Q_{2n} Q_{2n-1} d\mu = \int_0^1 Q_{2n} Q_{2n+1} d\mu.$$

As an application of some of the results of this investigation I will take the following physical problem. A spherical ball of uniform material is exposed to the radiation from infinitely distant surrounding objects. It is required to find the *stationary* condition. For the sake of simplicity, the surface of the sphere will be supposed to be perfectly black, that is, to absorb all the radiant heat that falls upon it, and Newton's law of cooling will be employed, at least provisionally.

If V denote the temperature, it is to be determined by the equations

$$\left(\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2}{dy^2} + \frac{d^2}{dz^2}\right)$$
V = 0, . . . . . . . . . (A)

where F(E) is a function of the position of the point E on the surface, and denotes the heat received per unit area at that point, k is the conductivity, and h the coefficient of radiation. Equation (A) is to be satisfied throughout the interior and (B) over the surface of the sphere.

If V be expanded in LAPLACE's series,

$$V = S_0 + S_1 \frac{r}{a} + S_2 \frac{r}{a^2} + \dots; \quad \frac{dV}{dr = a} = \frac{1}{a} (S_1 + 2S_2 + 3S_3 + \dots);$$

and if

$$F=F_a+F_b+F_b+\dots$$

be the expansion of F in a similar series of surface harmonics, we obtain, on substituting in (B) and equating to zero the terms of any order,

$$S_{0} = \frac{F_{0}}{h},$$

$$S_{1} = \frac{F_{1}}{h + \frac{k}{a}},$$

$$S_{2} = \frac{F_{2}}{h + \frac{2k}{a}},$$

$$...$$

$$S_{n} = \frac{F_{n}}{h + \frac{nk}{a}}.$$

$$4 I.$$
(C)

MDCCCLXX.

The mean temperature S₀ is seen to be independent of the conductivity and of the *size of the sphere.

The case where the heat which falls on the sphere proceeds from a single radiantpoint is not only important in itself, but may be made the foundation of the general solution in virtue of the principle of superposition. Taking the axis in the direction of the radiant-point, we have

$$F(E) = \mu$$

over the positive hemisphere, that is, from  $\theta = 0$  to  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ ,

while over the negative hemisphere F(E)=0.

It is required to expand F in a series of spherical harmonics.

Let  $F = \frac{1}{2}\mu + f$ , then f is a function of  $\mu$ , which is equal to  $\frac{1}{2}\mu$  over the positive hemisphere and to  $-\frac{1}{2}\mu$  over the negative. The problem therefore reduces itself to the expression of  $\frac{1}{2}\mu$  over the positive hemisphere in a series of functions Q of even order. The same series will then give  $-\frac{1}{2}\mu$  over the negative hemisphere.

Assume

$$\frac{1}{2}\mu = A_0 + A_2Q_2 + A_4Q_4 + \dots$$

Multiplying by  $Q_{2n}$ , and integrating with respect to  $\mu$  from  $\mu=0$  to  $\mu=1$ ,

$$\frac{1}{2}\!\!\int_0^1\!\!{\bf Q}_1{\bf Q}_{2n}d\mu\!=\!\!{\bf A}_{2n}\!\!\int_0^1\!\!({\bf Q}_{2n})^2\!d\mu,$$

all the other terms on the right vanishing.

Now 
$$\int_0^1 (Q_{2n})^2 d\mu = \frac{1}{4n+1}$$
.
$$\int_0^1 Q_1 Q_{2n} d\mu = \text{coefficient of } e^{2n} \text{ in the expansion of } \frac{1}{3} \frac{(1+e^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}-1}{e^2} = -(-1)^n \frac{1 \cdot 1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n-3)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n+2)},$$

or

$$\mathbf{A}_{2n} = -(-1)^n \frac{4n+1}{2} \frac{1 \cdot 1 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n-3)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n+2)}.$$

Accordingly

$$F(E) = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{3}Q_1 + \frac{5}{16}Q_2 - \frac{3}{33}Q_4 + \dots - (-1)^n \frac{4n+1}{2} \frac{1 \cdot 1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n-3)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot \dots \cdot (2n+2)} Q_{2n} + \dots$$

When *n* is great the coefficient of  $Q_{2n}$  approximates to  $\frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi_n n^2}}$ .

This completes the solution for a sphere exposed to the radiation from an infinitely distant source of heat situated over the point  $\mu=1$ .

If its coordinates are  $\mu'$ ,  $\varphi'$ , it is only necessary to replace  $\mu$  in  $Q_{2n}$  by

$$\cos\theta\cos\theta+\sin\theta\sin\theta\cos(\varphi-\varphi').$$

Hence if H denote the intensity of the radiation which comes in direction  $\mu'$ ,  $\phi'$ , the general value of  $S_n$  is

$$\mathbf{S}_{2n} = -(-1)^n \frac{4n+1}{2\left(h+\frac{nk}{a}\right)} \frac{1.1.3.5...(2n-3)}{2.4.6...(2n+2)}$$

$$\times \iint HQ_{2n}(\cos\theta\cos\theta' + \sin\theta\sin\theta'\cos(\varphi-\varphi'))d\mu'd\varphi',$$

the integration going all round the sphere.

Now  $(4n+1)\iint \mathbf{H} \mathbf{Q}_{2n} d\mu' d\phi'$  is the same as  $4\pi \mathbf{H}_{2n}$ , where  $\mathbf{H}_{2n}$  is the harmonic element of  $\mathbf{H}$  of order 2n; so that

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{S}_{2n} &= -(-1)^n \frac{1 \cdot 1 \cdot 3 \dots (2n-3)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \dots (2n+2)} \frac{2\pi \mathbf{H}_{2n}}{h + \frac{2nh^2}{a}} \\ \mathbf{S}_0 &= \frac{\pi}{h} \mathbf{H}_0, \\ \mathbf{S}_1 &= \frac{2\pi}{3 \left(h + \frac{k}{a}\right)} \mathbf{H}_1, \\ \mathbf{S}_2 &= \frac{\pi}{4 \left(h + \frac{2k}{a}\right)} \mathbf{H}_2, \\ \mathbf{S}_4 &= -\frac{\pi}{24 \left(h + \frac{4k}{a}\right)} \mathbf{H}_4. \end{split}$$

It is remarkable that the odd terms in H (except  $H_1$ ) are altogether without influence. The reason is simply that they do not affect the total heat falling on any point of the surface.

For this is expressed by

$$\int_0^1\!\!\int_0^{2\pi}\!\!\mu \mathbf{H}_n d\mu d\phi,$$

the point considered being taken as pole of  $\mu$ , which involves no loss of generality.

Now (Thomson and Tait, p. 149)

$$H_n = \sum_{s=0}^{s=n} (A_s \cos s\varphi + B_s \sin s\varphi) \Theta_n^s,$$

where  $\Theta_n^s$  is a function of  $\mu$  not containing  $\phi$ .

When the integration with respect to  $\varphi$  is effected, all the terms will vanish except that whose coefficient is  $A_0$ . For this purpose, therefore, we may take

$$H_n = A_0 \Theta_n^0$$
 or  $A_0' Q_n$ ,

and we know that  $\int_0^1 \mu Q_n d\mu$  vanishes if n be odd and different from unity*.

* The proof given is sufficient for the object in view; but it may be well to notice that the essential thing is that the two surface harmonics which are multiplied together are either both odd or both even. A harmonic

The same thing is true for an ellipsoid or body of any figure which lies altogether on one side of every tangent plane, namely, that the terms of odd order in H (except one) are wholly without influence on it, and for the same reason.

We saw that in the case of a sphere the mean temperature was independent of the conductivity, and also of the size of the sphere; but this depends on Newton's law of cooling. A comparison, however, may be made which shall hold good whatever be the law of variation of radiation with temperature; for if the conducting-power of any uniform body (which need not be oval) be increased in the same proportion as its linear dimensions, a corresponding distribution of temperature will satisfy all the conditions. Conclusions of interest from a physical point of view may be deduced from the foregoing considerations, but I refrain from pursuing the subject at present, as the physical problem was only brought forward in illustration of the mathematical results developed in this paper.

of even order has identical values at opposite points of the sphere, and one of odd order has contrary values. The product of two harmonics which are either both even or both odd has therefore the same value when integrated over any portion of the sphere, or over what may be called the opposite portion, or as a particular case over two opposite hemispheres. The last two integrals are the halves of the integral over the whole sphere, which vanishes by a well-known property of these functions.

XXV. On a Searcher for Aplanatic Images applied to Microscopes, and its effects in increasing Power and improving Definition. By G. W. Royston-Pigott, M.A., M.D. Cantab., M.R.C.P., F.C.P.S., F.R.A.S., formerly Fellow of St. Peter's College, Cambridge. Communicated by Professor Stokes, Sec. R.S.

Received March 31,-Read April 28, 1870.

In the observations which I have the honour to submit to the Royal Society, I purpose at present* to describe as briefly as possible—

- I. Some experiments which suggested an inquiry into a method of raising microscopic power consistent with a corresponding improvement in the precision of definition, so generally destroyed by excessive amplification.
- II. I next purpose to give some account of the inquiries by which the construction of an aplanatic-image searcher was gradually arrived at; the object of which was to search for aplanatic foci, to compensate residuary errors by new spherical and chromatic corrections whilst amplifying power, and to increase the small interval existing between a deep objective and its object, whilst the focal perspective or depth was also increased.

Such an inquiry,—in the present elaborated delicacy of adjustment accomplished in microscopes of the highest quality, especially when armed with "immersion sixteenths" which have alone succeeded in resolving Nobert's most delicate bands, embracing lines 112000 to the English inch,—would seem either superfluous or futile.

The research was originally suggested by the accidental resolution of the Podura scale. This exquisite object, so justly prized by the optician for the trial of microscopes, affords peculiar markings resembling notes of admiration, of sufficient delicacy to put even the defining-power of objectives of one-fiftieth of an inch to a severe ordeal. I had observed these markings to disappear and be resolved into black beads. The objective employed had nearly one-seventh of an inch focal length, and an aperture of 50°. The object was illuminated by solar rays reflected obliquely by a plane mirror. Having related this effect to eminent opticians, I was informed that no objectives (at that time 1862) could resolve this test. I prevailed on them, however, to construct a "very fine" one-eighth

4 M

^{*} The writer may here perhaps be allowed to offer an explanation of the delay in presenting this Memoir, notwithstanding the substance had been verbally communicated to Professor Stokes so early as the summer session of 1869.

It had been intended to give a much more extended account of the results obtained, and for this purpose, during the following autumn and winter, an extended paper was being prepared. In 1870 further delay seemed undesirable, and accordingly a new and brief memoir was drawn up of which the present paper forms a portion.

expressly for this resolution; as this totally failed, a one-sixteenth was carefully constructed with no better success, and finally a one-fourth of very large aperture; all these failed to exhibit the Podura beading*. Some unsuspected cause of this failure evidently remained to be investigated. The evidently delusive character of the standard test, so much relied upon for the construction of microscopic object-glasses, suggested the necessity of a search for other less uncertain methods of testing. The principle of proceeding from the known to the unknown appeared to offer the only sound basis of inquiry.

Simple objects were now examined. The finest glass threads presented linear images of any conceivable degree of proximity, whilst their fused extremities, when selected as forming refracting spherules one-thousandth of an inch in diameter, presented miniature landscapes and points of light of remarkable precision, the spherical aberration of which could be easily calculated to be of insignificant amount for limited apertures. Even a plano-convex lens of one-thirtieth of an inch focal length and three-hundredths aperture displayed, though uncorrected, miniature pictures of marvellous beauty, bearing considerable amplification; whilst a combination of achromatic lenses corrected with all the resources of modern art, seemed capable of forming an exquisitely small image of any given object placed at a distance from it, the appearance of which, when examined by the microscope to be tested, could at once be verified by the object producing the miniature test. When suitable precautions are taken—such as (1) axial coincidence of the objectives; (2) proper corrections for an "uncovered" or aërial, or for an aqueous image when immersion lenses are employed, and for the distance of the object from the imageforming objective,—these miniature test-images bear an extraordinary amount of amplification by the microscope, displaying at once the erroneous corrections. I have found it convenient in general to use the image or miniature-forming objective of a deeper focus than the observing, generally one-half.

The following experiments, as elucidating the operation of this testing, will, it is hoped, explain its critical powers. The mechanical arrangements are shown by diagrams, figs. 1, 1 a, Plate LII.

Experiment 1.—Miniature of a small thermometer, the ivory scale being graduated 24° to the inch. A power of 300 diameters, gained by a low eyepiece "A" and the objective of one-eighth focal length (made expressly for Podura beading-test), was applied to view the miniature formed by a one-sixteenth objective of excellent quality; and the following appearances were carefully noted at the time of observation.

Result.—The sparkle of light on the bulb of the instrument, the graduation, and the metallic thread within the glass tube are invisible, obscured by a nebulous yellow fog which no objective adjustments are able to dissipate. Fig. 3, Plate LII. (fig. 5 shows improving definition).

^{*} Messrs. Powell and Lealand spared neither skill nor time in endeavouring to assist my inquiry; but with these glasses I signally failed to exhibit to them the new test (1864).

In consequence of this unexpected discovery, regarding the quality of a "very fine" one-eighth, it was returned to the opticians to their surprise for better compensation. It was then, after more accurate compensation by them, again submitted to precisely the same testing conditions.

New results.—Appearance of a slight nebulous yellow cloud through which could be distinctly seen the ivory scale finely graduated, the bulb sparkle, and even minute separated mercurial particles scattered within the glass stem (fig. 7).

The definition had been therefore decidedly reformed. Previously, however, to the alteration, experiments had been tried for the purpose of ascertaining whether a defective glass would still form a fine miniature. It might be reasonably expected that such slight errors as had escaped the notice of eminent opticians would not materially injure a miniature image in which the aberration would probably be reduced in the miniature itself. The image of the thermometer now formed with the imperfect eighth was viewed with a fine sixteenth (at about 800 diameters), when it was gratifying to observe a very beautiful display of the picture well defined in all respects (fig. 4).

These and other experiments appeared to warrant an important conclusion—that an image-test miniature formed by an objective of fair quality enjoyed sufficient accuracy of definition in miniature (even when the object was placed at varying distances from the stage or focal point of vision) to form a trustworthy test of microscopical definition, provided the aperture of the miniature-forming objective was equal to that of the objective to be tested.

To estimate the size of a miniature ( $\alpha$ ) of a given object ( $\theta$ ) placed at a considerable distance (d) from the miniature (fig. 1  $\alpha$ ), it is necessary to consider that the conventional focal length F of an objective may be defined to be 10 inches divided by the micrometric ratio of amplification ( $n\iota$ ) when the image is thrown on a screen 10 inches from the object, so that

or

$$F = \frac{10}{m}$$
, when  $d = 10$ , 
$$m = \frac{10}{F}$$
, when  $d$  is constant. . . . . . . . . . . . (1)

When very deep objectives are used (fig. 1) the position of the plane of focal vision varies very slightly for a considerable increase of the length of the microscope, so that if the draw tube be graduated, the increase of power is nearly proportionate to the increased length or reading, because the focal plane being nearly fixed, the image will appear upon a screen enlarged proportionally as its distance (d) increases. On reversing the rays, the miniature diminishes in proportion as a given object is removed further from it: from which it follows that approximately, and sufficiently near for the purpose in hand,

$$m \propto d$$
 when F is constant. . . . . . . . . (2)

Compounding these expressions (1) and (2),

$$m \propto \frac{d}{F} = p \cdot \frac{d}{F}$$

The constant p=1; for if m be made equal 160, the conventional focus  $F=\frac{1}{16}$ , when d=10, and hence (d being large and F small) approximately,

If (f) be the focal length of a small lens whose thickness is neglected, a very similar approximate result can readily be obtained from the optical formula

$$\frac{1}{u} + \frac{1}{v} = \frac{1}{f}.$$

For by construction

$$u+v=d$$

and by similar triangles

$$mv = u$$
.

Eliminating the unmeasured distances u and v of the object and image from the "centre" of the lens, it will be found that

$$f = \frac{d}{m+2+\frac{1}{m}},$$

and m being very large in these experiments,

$$f = \frac{d}{m+2}$$
 nearly*, . . . . . . . . . . . (4)

or

But in the case of the miniature images employed, m is so large that (-2) may be neglected, so that  $m = \frac{d}{f}$  is sufficiently near for their measurement.

The thermometer was now placed 100 inches distance from the microscopical focus; the one-sixteenth being employed to form the image,  $f = \frac{1}{16}$ , d = 100; hence

$$m=100 \div \frac{1}{16} = 1600$$
 very nearly.

The divisions on the thermometer would be therefore reduced in the image to a miniature 1600 times less than the original, or about 40,000 to the inch, whilst the breadth of a single line would be only the 400,000th.

The means being thus obtained of readily estimating the size of images of known objects at known distances, the examination of immersion objectives next occupied my attention. Double stars were artificially produced in thin brass ( $\frac{1}{100}$  of an inch thick) by placing minute apertures ( $\frac{1}{1000}$  in diameter) in front of a brilliant flame, at the

^{*} This method also gives the focal length of a minute lens, to determine which accurately is attended with no little difficulty.

distance of 100 inches from the focal point of observation (fig. 9, Plate LII.). The apertures were so arranged as to gradually exhibit closer double disks (as shown roughly in fig. 9), which were carefully drawn on brass under the microscope and then accurately pierced. The miniature effect of the star-doublets is represented in the following Table, the immersion one-sixteenth objective being converted into one-twentieth*, so that f here  $=\frac{1}{20}$ , m=2000 at 100 inches distance (nearly).

		Calculated size of images	Distance between
Doublet.	Size of disks.	nearly.	their centres.
No. 2.	$\frac{12}{1000}$	$\frac{1}{166000}$	$\frac{1}{40000}$
No. 3.	$\frac{12}{1000}$	166000	20000

It will be readily seen from the diagram (fig. 8) that, in No. 2 the disks being  $\frac{1}{1000}$  and the separating interval between centres being  $\frac{1}{20}$ , the actual dividing interval is  $\frac{38}{1000}$ , or above three times the real diameter of each disk.

Experiment 2.—A drop of distilled water being suspended between the objectives, both of which were fitted with single front "immersion lenses," I was astonished to find that the separating interval (accurately measuring  $\frac{38}{1000}$  of an inch) between the centres of the disks had totally disappeared in the miniature image. The disks now resembled a finely divided double star just separated by a black line, yet this minute interval should have appeared above three times the diameter of a disk, as at B in fig. 6 & BC fig. 8. Apparently, therefore, in the eyepiece, spurious disks had been formed four times and one-sixth larger than a true aplanatic representation by the microscope†.

• It follows from this experiment that if the disks be supposed to gradually diminish to points, the limiting value of the residuary spurious disks would give nearly  $\frac{1}{52000}$  of an inch for the diameter of the least circle of confusion, representing the actual amount of residuary lateral aberration.

This appears from a diagram, where in the limit (fig. 8) EF=4AE, when AB, CD both vanish in the case of the disks being reduced to points.

The phenomena presented by these artificial doublet-image tests, gave fine evidence of the skill employed in the construction of the glasses, and of the accuracy with which the axes of the optical parts had been made to coincide in this delicate experiment.

All the disks appeared sharply cut and planetary (fig. 10), surrounded with a black ring supplemented by accurately formed diffraction rings, which enlarged and glowed with

- * By the adaptation of a "water-lens" one-thirtieth inch focus.
- † It will be observed in this experiment that the standard distance of 9 inches at which the object should be placed from the objective was increased to 100. It was found that only a very slight adjustment of the screw collar of the image-objective was necessary to compensate for this great increase of defining distance. It is hardly necessary to remark further that in a minute miniature image the aberration is insignificant compared with that taking place in a greatly magnified image of an object placed in the focus. This distinction is inseparable from this experiment, as already explained.

The minute apertures, made accurately with Swiss watchmaking-tools, were carefully blackened, to prevent internal reflexion, with a solution of perchloride of platinum. prismatic colours, both within and without the sharpest focal point or image, forming concentric intersections, displaying coloured pencils passing either to or from their finest point of focal combination where colour should be destroyed (fig. 6).

Experiment 3.—The disks ( $\lambda$ ) shown by the apertures  $\frac{1}{1000}$  of an inch in diameter, and separated between centres  $\frac{1}{20}$ , were now brought nearer to the objective O'. It was then observed that the image-disks (of above four times their proper size) began to separate; and since the spurious disk retains its false annular expansion independent of the true magnitude, it became evident that the exact distance at which the test doublet was first divided, gave for other objectives a comparative measure of their aberration; the very slight aberration in the image (of the sixteenth) being scarcely appreciable, especially when favoured by the advantage of the water-film to enhance the precision of definition on the immersion system.

By such experiments, with the finest glasses obtainable, the existence of an aberration of material and measurable amount being thus established, the next question to be settled assumed the following character, viz.

What was the nature of the aberration produced by displacement of the final focal image viewed by the eye-lens; and whether better effects could be produced by a different distribution of the magnifying-powers.

It was now found that increasing the distance between the eye-lenses and the objective, gained power indeed, but caused the aberration to increase faster than the power gained.

Intermediate Huyghenian eyepieces, inverted, were found to increase power but sacrifice definition; the apparent aberrations seemed incorrigible, so that this plan was finally abandoned in 1864. Although by this means the *Pleurosigma rhomboides* was fairly shown to Messrs. Powell and Lealand, with their one-sixteenth objective (dated 1862), they stated this method had been tried long before and relinquished as useless to improve definition.

Sliding-tubes (made by them at my request) were now furnished with a "universal screw," in order to admit a great variety of single and compound cemented lenses (more or less chromatically and spherically corrected) being inserted within the draw tube midway between the eyepiece and the objective. So, also, whole or parts of objectives were similarly applied, thus forming a microscope within a microscope admitting endless combinations of compensations.

It now seemed perfectly clear that any attempt to improve high-power definition must be preceded by the attainment of a ready and decisive method of ascertaining whether the balance of compensations was equal, or, on the other hand, over- or undercorrected. The *Image-test* already described appeared to effect this object in the following manner. The finest glasses, it is well known, are constructed upon the principle of balancing

compensations, the effect of the posterior combinations when overcorrected compensating that of the anterior glasses which are undercorrected. To ascertain therefore the indications of the character of a given correction (still employing the exquisite images formed by "the sixteenthi") wire gauze, forty meshes to the inch, was placed in front of a brilliant light; the image of the gauze was distinctly visible under the one-quarter objective ( $\times 250$  diameters) finely corrected for an uncoverd object.

To ascertain the appearances due to *overcorrection*, the front glasses were removed; whilst to examine those of undercorrection the front set alone was employed, the inner glasses being removed.

First result.—The image no longer appeared like gauze, but displayed (unless the aperture was reduced) extraordinary patterns, prismatic, translucent, and, as it were, chequered or plaid-like; all of which were situated entirely above the best focal point, and nothing but a confused nebulous field below it.

Second effect.—The employment of the front lenses alone now reversed the position of these appearances.

Readjusting all the glasses, it was then discovered that the false images were developed principally below the best focal image (ascertained by reducing the aperture of the microscope*) when the objective was undercorrected, and above it when overcorrected. Brilliant images of glittering particles of mercury scattered on black cloth nearly vertically illuminated, fine gauze 80 meshes to the inch, perforated metal, gold-leaf displaying against a brilliant light immeasurably small perforations exposed on a rich malachite green ground†, were submitted to be examined in miniature as test-objects. From a variety of experiments of this kind the following data were arrived at, to guide preliminary observations:—

That when any well-defined structure is viewed by the best microscopes, there exist *eidola*; or false images on each side of the best focal point.

That they are placed principally above or principally below the focal point of centrical pencils, according as the glasses are over or undercorrected; and that for a *single* stratum sufficiently thin, these eidola are nearly symmetrically exhibited on both side, of the best focal point only when the compensations are perfectly balanced.

It follows from these results that when a structure consists of two superimposed strata, in such close contiguity as to come within the optical limits of the *eidola*, the false images of the lower stratum are liable to be confused and commingled with the true image of the upper stratum when the objective is overcorrected, and when it is undercorrected the false images of the upper are confused with the true of the lower stratum.

^{*} The true image is at once seen by reducing the aperture; for this purpose a system of circular stops was applied to the microscope at the part where the objective is attached, admitting an instantaneous change in the aperture, and showing remarkable effects produced by change in the excentric aberration. Its mode of attachment is shown at  $\beta$ , fig. 1, Plate LII., where it is marked aberrameter.

[†] The gold-leaf is mounted on a slide in the ordinary way, and exhibits interesting and instructive phenomena.

[‡] Είδωλον.

These coincidences of eidola with true focal images may in both cases equally delude the observer.

The next question was the most favourable distribution of the elements of magnifying-power. According to a well-known optical principle, it seemed desirable to bend the rays by less sudden refractions. It is a peculiar result that when the incident and emergent pencils are equally bent so as to be equally inclined to the axis of an equiconvex lens, that then only is the aberration a minimum.

The effects of different distribution of power are well shown by the following experiments, in both of which the same amplification was employed of 400 diameters.

Experiment 4.—A miniature landscape formed by a convexo-plane lens  $\frac{1}{30}$  focal length and  $\frac{1}{100}$  aperture was examined with the one-eighth and an "A" eyepiece: axis horizontal and window open.

Result.—Landscape dark and hazy, as seen in the microscope.

The deficiency of light was most remarkable.

The same power (400) was now obtained with the half-inch objective and a D eyepiece. Experiment 5.—The miniature being formed as before by the small lens, the microscope was now again brought into operation on the minute image horizontally.

Result.—Exquisite picture brilliantly lit up; even the foliage glittering in the sunlight was sharp, clear, and decisive, so that the details of the garden picture were marvellously displayed.

The difference appeared truly surprising as regards the two methods of obtaining the same magnifying-power, especially the increased light with diminished aperture.

In both these cases the greatest pains were taken to properly adjust the index collars of the objectives for the finest possible definition of an uncovered object.

A new fact had appeared highly suggestive of further inquiry. Accordingly, distribution of power was now varied by employing differently constructed eye-lenses, especially "crossed lenses"*, and inserting, midway between the objective and eyepiece, convex lenses of great variety. It was now seen that these lenses, intermediately placed, developed an entirely new aberration of a negative kind†. It became important to decide

* Crossed lenses, well known to give a minimum aberration having the radii of their curved surfaces as 6:1.

† It is convenient to define the aberration to be positive or negative, or the lens to be over- or undercorrected, by the simple fact that a convex lens causes the excentrical rays to cross the axis at a point nearer the centre of the lens than the centrical rays, in which case, and in all analogous cases, it may be said that the lens is undercorrected and afflicted with a negative aberration. English objectives are now constructed on the principle of having the posterior sets overcorrected and the anterior undercorrected so skilfully as to destroy, by opposite errors nearly, the residuary aberration; but the opinion may be hazarded that future combinations will yet be found which will completely throw into the shade the present powers of the microscope, when perhaps we shall be in a better position to attempt to determine the microscopical features of molecular life, at present probably beyond its grasp, as no single particle so small as the sixty-thousandth of an inch in diameter can be clearly defined if isolated, until residuary error is very much reduced.

It is to be regretted that the precise nature of the marvellous combinations invented by Professor Amici for

whether compensations of aberration could be effected by attending to some definite principle or law.

The previously ascertained properties of eidola enabled many experiments to be made with rapidity and certainty. The following principles were, in short, patiently arrived at by experiments extending over several years:-

- I. Displacement of the final focal image towards the eye-lenses, provided the front lens or facet of the object-glass is kept at the same distance from the object under. observation, is caused by approximating even slightly the component adjusting lenses of the objective, and this movement causes a negative aberration, and vice versa.
- II. With test-images, both observing and miniature or image-forming objective follow the same law of compensation. If one be overcorrected the other must be similarly adjusted, and vice versâ.
- III. Using additional compensating lenses to gain increase of power, intermediately placed between eyepiece and objective, the finest definition is obtained when each of the three sets, viz. lenses, observing and image-objective, are similarly though slightly overcorrected, as compared with a standard defining distance of 9 inches.

Although a fine definition seemed now attainable by means of supplementary compensating lenses, if judiciously introducing balancing compensations, yet their practical adjustments were innumerable and tediously accomplished*. At this stage of the research, frequent consideration of the well-known optical equations for a vanishing aberration fortunately suggested to me the idea of searching the axis, mechanically, for aplanatic foci. In reference to these equations, which would be out of place here, it has been observed by Dr. Parkinson, F.R.S. +, "If the aberration for rays parallel at incidence of a compound lens of given focal length—consisting of several thin lenses in contact—be examined, it will consist of a series of terms similar to that in Art. (129), one term for each lens, and the condition that the aberration shall vanish will lead to an equation involving more than one unknown quantity, and consequently admitting an unlimited number of solutions."

In the distribution of the power-lenses, and in the application of a traversing searcher, it was indispensable that the object should be kept distinctly visible in the

objectives remain unknown. As one of the Jurors in the Paris Exposition, his microscope necessarily remained both uncelebrated and unclucidated in the Reports.

^{*} During 1865-1869 many experiments were tried with complete objectives and various parts of them, either over- or undercorrected by means of a sliding-tube carrying them and fitting into the "draw tube."

Professor Listing of Göttingen has confirmed the value of this method of amplification quite independently in two papers published in 1869. Nachr. d. kgl. Gesell. der Wissensch. 1869, No. 1, and Poggend. Annalen, 1869, vol. xvi. p. 467 ('Nature,' Jan. 27, 1870).

In the first he recommended an inverted Huyghenian eyepiece, and in the second intermediate achromatic lenses.

As regards intermediate lenses, the writer has ascertained (Nov. 1870) that Dr. Goring (Micrographia, ed. 1837) has anticipated both these methods.—Note added Nov. 1870.

⁺ GRIFFIN'S 'Optics,' by Parkinson, p. 122, 2nd ed. 1866.

field of view, by a proper selection of lenses whilst the optical compensations were being adjusted. The form finally adopted is simply this:—

A pair of slightly overcorrected achromatic lenses, admitting of further correction by a separating adjustment, are mounted midway between a low eyepiece and the objective, so as to admit of a traverse of 2 or 3 inches by means of a graduated milled head. These lenses are conveniently traversed within the draw tube; and can be brought to bear within 4 inches of the objective, or at a distance of 10 inches.

The focal length of the combination forming the aplanatic image-searcher may vary from  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch to  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an inch. The latter applies more effectively to low objectives when it is desirable to obtain extraordinary depth of focal penetration, and vision through very thick glass*—as with a half inch giving 700 diameters with a C eyepiece. I possess a Wray half-inch objective† which bears an E eyepiece and searcher. It should now be stated that the searcher may be employed with very different intentions. Thus—

When it is desirable to view an object through a very thick refracting medium, the searcher is brought as close as possible to the objective, which action lengthens the focus of the objective; and the same thing is necessary when the observer wishes to throw the eidola of an upper structure above and away from the true image of the lower but contiguous stratum—as when the lower beads of the Podura are required, or when it is required to give additional negative aberration to an objective too positively corrected in which the front glasses are already forced into a dangerous proximity.

On the contrary, when the searcher is traversed the opposite way, the *objective lenses* require to be brought nearer together; the instrument is then more adapted for viewing objects or particles lying in the upper plane of a complex structure, throwing the *eidola* of the lower layer below that layer itself, and so leaving the upper stratum less disguised by the false images of the lower.

In intermediate cases, where greater penetration or focal perspective is required, with a thin glass cover, the objective lenses must be proportionately separated by an increased interval, the searcher being traversed towards the objective; and in general confused images of both upper and lower strata can be obtained by opposite arrangements.

A very interesting refinement upon the corrections for chromatic effects may be accomplished by gradually traversing either way both searching and objective lenses and closely watching the effect.

The most brilliant definition is generally obtained when the searcher (a little more overcorrected) is used as close to the objective as possible.

The overcorrection of the searcher is increased by separating its component lenses according to the divisions upon the sliding tubes of the searcher.

^{*} Nearly one-fourth of an inch thick.

[†] With a "Kelner" two-thirds of an inch focal length, a very clear, very large, and flat field is presented to the eye, notwithstanding the increased power with the searcher. A one-and-a-half-inch objective by Ross was used generally for a condensing illuminating apparatus more or less stopped off.

[‡] Such as separating the objective lenses and traversing the searcher further from them.

It will be seen that an exceedingly small pencil engages the surface of the searcher diverging from a point in the image  $p_i q_i$ , which is inverted again at  $p_i q_i$ . As the searcher is traversed nearer the eye the pencils become less divergent, and the effect of the searcher is diminished. On the contrary, as it approaches the objective,  $p_i q_i$  being formed nearer to the latter after refocusing, a more divergent pencil engages a greater aperture of the searcher, and this now automatically causes a stronger overcorrection than before. The essential action of the searcher is to apply a rapid variable correction by a traversing movement (fig. 2, Plate LII.).

The use of this instrument will be facilitated by first setting the microscope for ordinary use without the searcher, adjusting an eyepiece, the focus, and screw-collar to the most distinct vision, and then applying the draw tube containing the searcher placed at a point nearest to the eyepiece E. As the searcher is traversed towards the objective, the lenses of the objective may require separation.

The change in the general aberration is shown by the divided index of the milled head actuating the movement of the searcher (M, fig. 1).

The power obtained is in general from two and a half to four times greater than that given with the third eyepiece C of 1 inch focal length: with a very fine eighth of Messrs. Powell and Lealand's new construction, a clear and satisfactory definition of the beading of the *Pleurosigma formosum* was exhibited to them, by means of the aplanatic searcher, at a power *estimated* at 4000 diameters*. Several inferior objectives have acquired a fine definition by the application of the searcher.

This paper perhaps will hardly be complete if I omit to add, that the instrument will be most effectively employed by considering it as a conjugate portion or integral part of the objective itself, in which the minute traversing adjustment of the objective lenses finds its counterpart in the more extended and therefore more delicate adjusting traverse of the searcher itself. So that, in short, during minute microscopical research each adjustment should be intelligently applied, according to the nature of the research in hand. The indications of the one adjustment should be employed to verify those of the other. Correlative movements by the aid of the searcher may introduce aplanatic images, whilst a violation of their correlation will exhibit deformity.

I ought also to state that I have found in every case, either an extra thickness of glass cover or a deeper immersion of a given object in the film of Canada balsam (or other fluid used for mounting it) to require for a precise definition additional adjustment; the searcher should be made in this case to traverse towards the object to attain the new correction requisite. The same remark is applicable to immersion lenses. Further slight improvement can be effected in the precision of definition by separating more or less the component glasses of the Huyghenian eyepiece (the power of which is preferred as low as 3-inch focal length for the  $\frac{1}{20}$  "immersion") or by substituting for it a single

^{*} The usual power of the one-eighth with a C eyepiece is 800; a power of 4000 is given by an eyepiece of one-fifth of an inch focal length.

achromatic combination slightly overcorrected for spherical aberration of 2 inches focal length, or less according to the power required*.

An additional cap containing a supplementary achromatic lens is sometimes advantageously fixed upon the lenses of the searcher, when (for instance) a power of 700 diameters is desired to be developed by a half-inch objective (for test *Podura* beading).

In conclusion, the experiments detailed in this paper, selected from a great number made within the last few years, it is hoped will induce more able observers to repeat them in a more general form; but, so far as they are detailed, they appear satisfactorily to demonstrate the detection of residuary aberration of considerable amount in the very finest microscopes, and enable one to measure it and to suggest means of diminishing the errors of the glasses whilst greatly increasing the power. Whether a similar method can be applied also to telescopes has been some time under the author's consideration, with results which he hopes on a future occasion to have the honour of communicating to the Society.

## APPENDIX.

The law of displacement followed by the final focal image corresponding to a minute displacement of the internal lenses of a complex objective, the front lenses or facet remaining fixed, possesses some interest and may thus be expressed:—

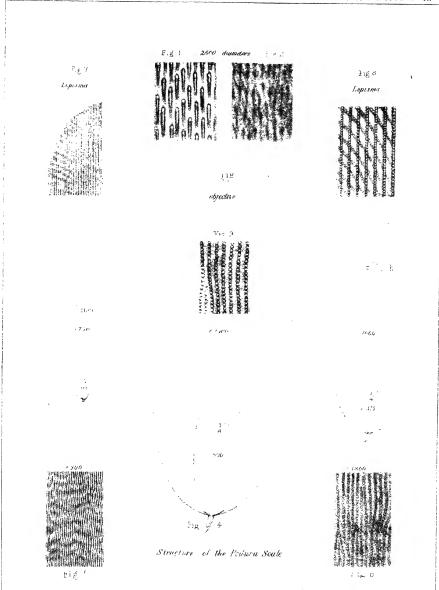
Let F be the distance of the final focal image when the objective lenses are closed together.

 $F + \delta F$  its distance when the front sets of the objective are displaced by a quantity  $\delta x$ . Then it will be found if  $f_i$  be the distance of the virtual image conjugate with the *object* as formed by the front set of lenses,

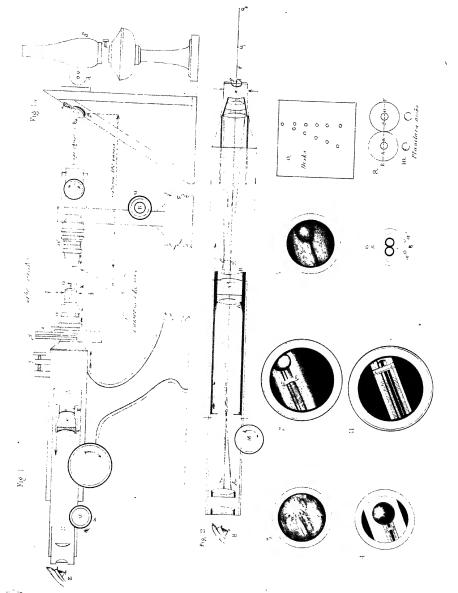
$$\delta F : \delta x :: -F^2 : f_1^2;$$

and consequently every slight change of the screw-collar of an adjusting objective produces comparatively a very large displacement in the final focal image, and therefore of the traversing image-searcher; so that the searcher-traverse represents a movement conjugate with the objective index. Again, since this traverse towards the objective encounters rays of increasing divergence, an increasing breadth of pencil is encountered by the lenses of the searcher, and its own peculiar aberration receives an instantaneous increase, which introduces an important new element in definition, it having been observed that the glasses must be very gradually overcorrected as the image is formed nearer the objective, within the tube of the microscope.

* I may be permitted to add a note here (Nov. 7, 1870), that a Wray one-fifth, made expressly, admitted of as great amplification as an ordinary one-twelfth. In fact these researches appear to point decisively to greater advantages to be expected from raising the quality of the lower objectives rather than deepening focal length. Observers are more numerous every year who prefer the ooc-eighth to the one-twenty-fifth and one-fiftieth.



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## EXPLANATION OF THE PLATES.

### PLATE II.

- Plate I.I. is intended to represent the working powers gained by the use of the Aplanatic Searcher by means of comparative outline drawings of a given "scale" taken by Mr. Aldous with the Camera under the magnifying-powers and objectives indicated.
- Fig. 1. The standard appearance of the Podura under the  $\frac{1}{50}$ .  $\frac{1}{25}$ , and  $\frac{1}{8}$  Powell and Lealand objectives.
  - Fig. 2. Resolution of the lower beads of Podura.
  - Fig. 3. The beads of the upper stratum.
  - Fig. 4. Comparative magnifying-power of the \(\frac{1}{8}\) objective with the searcher, and also in the ordinary way with a "third" eyepiece, C, of 1 inch focal length.
  - Fig. 5. General appearance of the wavy markings of the Podura, consisting of beaded ribbing faintly visible here with a pocket-lens.
  - Fig. 6. Both sets of beading exhibited at once.
  - Figs. 7, 8. Ordinary and extraordinary appearance of Lepisma.

#### PLATE LII.

This Plate shows the image-test arrangements of the objectives and object of which a miniature is desired, and also the construction of the searcher.

- M. The divided milled head of the traversing aplanatic searcher, consisting of separable lenses, A, B, having a variable interval, x', between them. The searcher traverses the draw tube, into which is fixed the eyepiece E. R, M are adjusting milled heads of the stage supporting the image objective O' (fig. 1 a).
- O, O', fig. 1, fig. 1 α, are the objective to be tested and the miniature-forming 1 immersion objective, giving an image α of the object θ, or double disks λ, illuminated by a lamp, δ.
- y represents the focal adjustment, and
- β the aberrameter inserted into the nose of the microscope containing two revolving disks forming central and peripheral stops.
- Fig. 2 represents the course of the rays from the object Q to the last focal image  $q_n p_n$  erected.

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